

The Nation.

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The Week.

One of the most troublesome questions that the Reclamation Service has had to deal with has been settled by the treaty just signed between the United States and Mexico, which apportions the waters of the Rio Grande available for irrigation. The fight for the right to divert water from the Rio Grande has been going on for years, but it has become serious only since the irrigation idea grew popular. Increased use of the flow in New Mexico has resulted in a shortage for the Mexican users, and the quarrel naturally went to Washington and the City of Mexico for settlement. The terms of the compromise appear to be advantageous to the United States. From the costly Engel dam in New Mexico, which practically controls the Rio Grande's flow, Mexico is to get about one-eighth of the store in return for the relinquishment of her ancient rights of diversion. Those Western Senators who, it is reported, are opposed to giving Mexico any of the impounded water, should not carry their opposition to the point of defeating the treaty; if they do, we shall have another long-drawn-out, harassing Kansas-Colorado suit that will not only disturb our excellent relations with Mexico, but retard development along the Rio Grande as well. "Irrigation rows" are notoriously difficult to patch up, and the success of Secretary Root and Ambassador Casasus in settling this one is matter for congratulation.

Whoever reads the report of Saturday's debate in the House of Representatives on the bill to provide against the "leaking" of information from any department of the Government, will perhaps understand why the Senate still has the "effrontery" to "block" that branch of our national Legislature which "does things." As agreed upon at a joint conference, the bill provided that every officer and employee of the United States, while holding office or position, be forbidden to give out information as to the products grown in the United States that would affect the market value of United States bonds or the bonds and stocks of any incorporated company. The prohibition embraced the President as well as the charwomen in the offices of the Department of Agriculture. The only point on which the conference was in doubt was whether members of Congress should be included. Interrupting the discussion, Representative McCall of Massachusetts se-

cured an hour's time, and showed that, in trying to remedy one specific evil, the "leaking" of cotton statistics, the bill would really go far beyond all proper bounds. What the proposition to include members of Congress in the list of those who should remain clam-like amounted to, Mr. McCall declared, was "to complete and make perfect the exquisite absurdity of an absurd bill."

"The ideal perfection of the universe"—this, as the Massachusetts Representative pointed out, was the real intent of the bill. "After hearing of this trouble about cotton, the gentleman tries to perfect the whole universe in order to take care of cotton." Pursuing his argument, he warned the House that it would, by enacting any such legislation, encourage State trials, "the spectacular and bizarre prosecution" of officeholders who might be judged by the dominant party fit victims to "enhance the popularity of somebody." Such a measure, too, would "augment executive influence over Congress." With such a weapon, the President might set up his Paul Mortons and pull down his Judge Humphreys with no thought except for the "good of the country." Going on in his heartless way, Mr. McCall exposed the bill as one of the haziest bits of legislation ever attempted. Not a dozen members, he affirmed, knew what the bill meant. Its minimum penalty of a year's imprisonment he characterized as "absolutely heathenish." A Cabinet officer would go to his post in fear and trembling. If some morning in talking to a newspaper correspondent he remarked that the weather was very bad, and the price of corn dropped, and the stock of a corn-products company fell in price, clearly the Cabinet officer could be imprisoned for a year. Before Mr. McCall's hour was gone, the whole matter was exposed in its crudity, with the result that the bill was tabled and killed by a vote of 107 to 63. This showed what unfettered discussion can do in an unchained House.

In finally deciding in favor of a sea-level canal at Panama, the Senate committee has gone back to the recommendations of the majority of the consulting engineers whose advice President Roosevelt rejected. As a matter of fact, we suppose the committee's action was intended mainly as a disapproval of the 85-foot project, with three locks in flight at Gatun. The weight of technical opinion seems against that plan. But merely to vote sea-level does not get us there. One lock at least is necessary, even at so-called sea level. And it is doubtful if Congress, in its present

weary and angry mood, can be held in Washington long enough to come to a clear decision between rival plans. This will throw the whole matter back upon the President. He has said that, in that event, he would begin building a lock canal, as provided for in the Spooner act, though he admitted the probability of "modifications." For them, he would certainly have to call in the engineers again. Perhaps a compromise between the 85-foot plan and the sea-level may in that way be reached. Best of all would it be to throw the whole matter open to bidding by responsible contractors, and take the Government's blundering hand off the business.

While challenging the House Committee on the Judiciary to show that Congress spends the people's money more wisely than the officers of the big insurance companies who contribute to party campaign funds, Senator Bulkeley resorted to the only defence a plain-speaking man could offer. Suppose I did give \$5,000 of the money paid by the Aetna Fire Insurance Company's policyholders to help elect McKinley in 1896? he asks. Am I not a faithful guardian of my stockholders' interests? And were not other faithful guardians vigilant in protecting the country from such perils as W. J. Bryan? Senator Bulkeley was exceedingly moderate in his estimate of the proportion of peril threatening the Aetna company, as he admits. Even \$20,000 would have been but a "flea-bite" to what he personally paid to help defeat the Democratic party. This statement will be appreciated in Connecticut, where the continued display of Bulkeley's skill as a manipulator of campaign funds led finally to the passage of a corrupt-practices act by the Legislature. The Milwaukee investigation bears out the impression that Bulkeley, McCall, McCurdy, and the rest of the insurance patriots who rushed to help the Republican party save the country with the country's own money, were following an accepted precedent. The only difference appears to have been that, in the Wisconsin case, \$2,000 was judged sufficient. But then, the West is notoriously indifferent to "political peril."

The sworn testimony at the hearing of the Interstate Commerce Commission in Philadelphia last week that trusted officials of the Pennsylvania Railroad are vulgar "grafters," would have shocked and surprised men a year and a half ago; but the insurance revelations have hardened us to news of this kind. George W. Creighton, general superintendent of the Altoona division, received some 1,300 shares of stock from mining companies

with which the railway has constant dealings. Asked whether the gifts had been presented for "pure love and affection," Creighton replied, "I just accepted them without asking any questions." George W. Clarke, a car distributor, was made happy by such tokens of regard as occasional checks for \$50, baskets of wine, boxes of cigars, and dividends on coal stock. He didn't know what the checks were for, but, he added, "I cashed them." He came into possession of stock worth \$5,000, but he didn't "recall the circumstances." John M. Jamison, president of the Jamison Coal and Coke Company, frankly declared that, in order to secure favors, he had sent a check for \$5,000 to Robert E. Pitcairn, assistant to President A. J. Cassatt. He had also given stock to other specified Pennsylvania officials. Michael Trump, general superintendent of transportation, and R. L. O'Donnel, general superintendent of the Buffalo and Allegheny Valley division, both confessed that they had accepted as presents the stock of companies which shipped coal over the railway. Charles E. Pugh, second vice-president, had bought considerable amounts of coal stock and bonds. Naturally, he was not inclined to encourage the development of new mines along the railway, because the old mines, as he explained with a laugh, "furnish more coal than is needed." To mistake the significance of these admissions is impossible. A coal company which wishes to avoid trouble presents neat blocks of stock to Pennsylvania officials, or else persuades these gentlemen that the stock is a good investment. The managers of the railways are certainly in a position to increase or diminish the earnings of the coal companies. Not to put too fine a point on it, the officers of the Pennsylvania have subjected their shippers to elaborate and systematic blackmail.

These transactions throw light on a phase of high finance that has provoked frequent comment—the inexplicable transfer or even disappearance of shares of stock. In some of Whitaker Wright's operations certain mysterious "press calls" were noted by the censorious. The mystery was cleared up, however, when four high-minded newspaper writers were forced to disgorge £13,454. A yet more striking instance occurred in the organization of the American Steel and Wire Company. John W. Gates was chairman of the finance committee. When he was asked in 1902 what had become of a little block of stock—\$26,000,000 in all—which had not been accounted for, he confessed that he did not know. In the light of present knowledge, we can imagine that the stock was judiciously allotted to trainmasters, division superintendents, car distributors, and other gentlemen who were able to show favors at the right time to the

right people. Mr. Jamison's company got off without paying such heavy toll—only \$35,000. Such dealings show the most cynical disregard of moral obligations—to say nothing of mere law. A bank president or cashier who should accept a private "rake-off" on every important loan, would be generally recognized as a scoundrel. The buyer of a department store who should take gifts from manufacturers, would be discharged as untrustworthy. The case of the bribed railway official is in certain respects even worse. He serves a corporation which enjoys peculiar rights and which in return is bound as a common carrier to serve all patrons alike. If he forms a conspiracy to help one shipper at the expense of another, he is guilty of a crime not merely against his employer, but against the public.

Senator Patterson's promise to the people of Denver that, if the municipal ownership ticket was defeated this year, he would run for Mayor of the city next year on that issue, should not be remembered against him. Undoubtedly, the Senate would spare him resignedly, but it is most unlikely that Denver would put him at the head of her city government. At the election on Tuesday week, when six important franchise propositions and five charter amendments were voted upon in addition to aldermanic candidates, county supervisors, and election commissioners, a two-to-one vote was recorded against the municipal-ownership programme. Among the propositions favored were those to grant franchises to the Denver Gas and Electric Company, to the Northwestern Terminal Company, to the Union Pacific, to the Municipal Traction Company and the Denver Terminal Company. The charter amendments were concerned with the regulation of charges by public-service corporations, the purchase of a lighting plant by the city, the voting of \$5,000,000 to beautify the city, the making of a ten-year contract for street lights, and a police pension scheme. The opportunity for a straight fight between the "M. O.'s" and the "corporation slaves" was an exceptional one; the fact that Senator Patterson deserted Washington and had been for two weeks working continuously for the ownership ticket, showed how earnestly the issue was pressed. Denver's negative and decisive verdict should give the public-ownership enthusiast something to think about.

By passing the Shurtleff direct-primary bill, the Illinois Legislature ended ingloriously a dismal special session that had lasted since April 10. On that date Gov. Deneen called the lawmakers together at Springfield to remedy the mistake of a year before, when an unconstitutional measure was passed. It is

probable that the Shurtleff bill will stand the test of constitutionality, but it will hardly satisfy those who really want the direct primary. As explained by the *Chicago News*, candidates for elective State and county offices, for municipal offices to be filled in November, for clerkships of Appellate Courts, and for the House of Representatives and the Senate are to be voted upon. The delegates to the nominating conventions are to be bound to the candidates selected in the primary "for at least one ballot" only; and to the County Central committees, which are not named by the party voters, is left the definition of the delegate districts. With such an imperfect bill before him, it is not surprising that Lieut.-Gov. Sherman, who declared that "there is not a line in the bill that gives the people a right to say whom they shall nominate," should have denounced the session as a humiliating failure. It is to be hoped the report that Gov. Deneen will sign the bill is not true.

A "lawyers' ticket," proposed by the bar of the city for the action of the voters in November, when ten new Supreme Court justices are to be chosen in the First Department, should have an excellent chance to win. Not only are the ten thousand and more lawyers of the New York bar competent to select a ticket free from entanglements with Tammany or Quigg, but they know how to run a campaign in which they are deeply interested. Almost to a man, the Jerome workers last fall were lawyers. They supplemented the District Attorney's enthusiasm with hard work and an unexpected ability to organize and convert. This year there is no possible reason why these practitioners should not disregard every offered political alliance and say: "Here is our ticket; take it or leave it." We believe that prompt action of this kind by a really representative body of lawyers would force sufficient endorsement from the party organizations to insure the success of the ticket. But, even if it did not, the city is in a mood to appreciate a vigorous independent campaign, based on the demand that the judiciary shall be absolutely free from the dictation of politicians, while the machine is horrified that the lawyers and the Citizens' Union do not propose to "wait."

George W. Jimenez, a New York patrolman of Cuban birth, has just returned from Panama after an unsuccessful attempt to reform the police of the republic. His experiences, though doubtless serious enough to him, are diverting reading for others. He took charge of a corps of 360 policemen, many of whom were crippled derelicts of ancient revolutions; a good half the force were detailed as butlers, coachmen, and waiters to the Government officials;

about 150 were on daily duty. Chief Jimenez variously attempted to make the police of Panama conform to the New York standard, but very soon found that the chief and only imperative duty of an officer was to vote early and often for the Administration on election day, and so far as possible prevent the Opposition from voting. Between elections the force was chiefly a refuge for pensioners of the wives of the authorities. Mr. Jimenez also objected to the ill-treatment of persons imprisoned on suspicion, and it revolted his manly soul to see handcuffs immediately clapped upon any person under arrest. It appears that the average Panaman officer is not of a physique to make a compatriot, much less an American, "walk Spanish" without such artificial aid. It is ill dealing as a reformer with a people that abhors reform, and Mr. Jimenez's unhappy experience lends an illustration to Mr. Taft's offhand statement that the United States will intervene in Panama to keep order as it sees fit. Evidently, the Republic of Panama is a poor thing, but our own.

After four years of President Palma, the Cubans are glad to have four years more of his rule. If his Administration has been open at times to criticism, it has, at any rate, brought a new prosperity to the island, has been successful in suppressing irresponsible revolutionists, and in making the people contented. President Palma, of course, had the moral backing of Washington in 1902 when he took office—indeed, he was more American than Cuban after twenty-five years of residence in New York State; but that has not altogether explained his success. It might have accounted for his first election, but not his second. The sensation of self-government has been felt all over Cuba, and it is because Palma has thrown himself enthusiastically into the work of transforming "free Cuba" into prosperous Cuba, that he has strengthened his hold to such a degree that all opposition was withdrawn before the last election. The reciprocity treaty, better sugar and tobacco crops, and the development of transportation and manufacturing have been powerful campaigners for Palma; and the Isle of Pines incident only served to show the good understanding between the Administration at Havana and that at Washington. The President of Cuba has increased his claim to the title of "Cuban patriot."

The French Ministry increased its majority on the second balloting on Sunday, which saw the defeat of the group of Nationalists and other reactionaries left in suspense at the first trial. The victory has been won on a basis of anticlericalism and of social reform. M.

Sarrien is backed by a group of Radicals falling only a little short of a majority, and is less dependent than he has been on the votes of the Socialist Left. The *Temps* accepts the voting as primarily a triumph for the Republic. It points out that for the first time since the Third Republic was founded, no prominent candidate has dared to present himself as its opponent. The various types of Royalists and Imperialists have taken to cover under the vague appellation of Nationalism. When the *Temps* also professes to see in the elections a check to collectivism, its case is not so convincing. If the Socialists languish temporarily, it is only because successive Governments have outdone each other in the attempt to kill their exacting allies by kindness. Most parties will stand an enormous amount of this treatment without giving up the ghost. Paternalism is likely to have full sway for a number of Parliamentary sessions. Fortunately, men of proved sense and executive capacity are in charge. A curious result of the vindication of the Separation Act is to make Rome a far more interesting point for observers of French politics than Paris itself. Will Pius X. follow the advice of the most distinguished Catholics of France and accept a hard dispensation resignedly, or will he oppose the application of the Separation Act and take the chances of a religious war? His decision will be momentous, and will pretty well settle the question, raised by certain skeptics and old-line Catholics, whether the Cardinal-Patriarch of Venice was "popeable" or not.

The rejection of a Labor bill in the Lords is a straw that shows the drift. The particular act aimed to suspend the incoming of all laborers from abroad during a trade dispute. It looked towards a foolish and impracticable embargo, and was well voted down. The incident, however, gives a hint of very embarrassing possibilities for the upper house. Will it dare throw out the trade-dispute bill granting immunity for trade-union funds? What will be its attitude towards the act promising a free meal to all school children? It is years since the calm of the Peers has been so constantly threatened. Obviously, a practice of rejecting bills from the Commons will hardly do. The Lords are not popular enough to risk a course that would point the outcry for their abolition. It is likely, then, that the more radical labor legislation will go through relatively unopposed, and that the negative and amendatory votes will be kept for the Education bill, or on the off-chance that the local self-government bill for Ireland should bear the look of an advance towards home rule.

Delimitation of spheres of influence in

Persia, perhaps the most important feature of the Anglo-Russian understanding now nearing final negotiation, would relieve international politics of a particularly dangerous question. It is said that Russia abandons her claim to a port on the Persian Gulf, and Great Britain acknowledges Russia's paramount position in the northern half of the Shah's dominions. British influence was once supreme throughout Persia, and imports into that country came almost entirely from Manchester; but the markets of Teheran, Tabriz, and Meshed have been flooded with Russian goods, and the energy of Russia's agents has destroyed British influence in the north. But if Britain gives way in North Persia, she holds her own with the greatest determination in the south. Every Foreign Secretary, Liberal or Conservative, has recognized the necessity of keeping Russia at a distance. No one within recent years has been more instrumental in maintaining this policy than Lord Curzon. In his book on Persia he says that he would impeach as a traitor to his country any minister who permitted Russia to penetrate to the Gulf. Hence the fact that Russia and England are in agreement is a particularly encouraging sign of the times.

The Duma's reply to the Czar's address held language respectful but firm. It appears to be a body that knows its own mind, perceives the need of extending its powers, while exercising them in an orderly manner, and has clear ideas about the only way in which representative and responsible government can be established in Russia. Its demand that the Imperial Council be either abolished or shorn of its obstructive functions, so that the Duma may express the people's will directly to the Czar, is the most radical that it makes. One must doubt if it will be acceded to without a struggle. Probably the autocracy will consider this an attack upon one of its inalienable prerogatives. The Duma is on surer ground when it calls for the instant repeal of exceptional repressive laws, for the doing away with imprisonment without trial, and for the right of the people's representatives to have a direct voice in all legislation. The reactionary policy could not well be challenged more sharply. The Czar's refusal to receive the memorial of the Duma direct from its president and a deputation is, however natural, calculated to stir discontent to the depths. To the Duma it will be the sign that Nicholas II. is still swayed by bureaucratic counsellors. For the present, the new Legislature proceeds quietly to the land question, assuming its jurisdiction in the premises quite as cavalierly as the Czar has stood on an improvised puntillio, and awaits the first probable concession, at least partial amnesty.

PASSAGE OF THE RATE BILL.

The sudden passing of the amended Railway-Rate bill by the Senate on Friday-afternoon may have been due to weariness superinduced by either heat or talk. Of the latter, the Senate should surely have gone through a surfeit cure during the past three months. Be this as it may, the bill now goes to conference, and we are able to guess very nearly what its final form will be, as also to estimate its practical and political effects.

All agree that, but for President Roosevelt's initiative, no such bill could yet have been got through Congress. Senator Tillman frankly gave that as his opinion in the closing hours of the debate; though he added, as in duty bound, that the whole idea was stolen by the President from the Democrats. But that sort of charge hardly counts in politics. No one can file a notice of patent applied for in the case of a political invention; and a radical, accidentally in power in a conservative party, may take his own wherever he finds it. Accordingly, the reluctant acceptance of the Rate bill by the Republican Senators must be reckoned as the personal achievement of Mr. Roosevelt. Unluckily for him, the very hour of his triumph has been clouded by revelations which have unquestionably damaged his reputation more seriously than anything that ever befell him in public life; so that he loses the fruits of victory at the moment of plucking them. A dozen Rate bills could not make up for the Chandler letters and diary and the unrefuted assertions about the President's tergiversations made in the Senate. Even if this withering of the laurel at the instant of putting it on had not occurred, it would still have been necessary to ask just what it was the President fought for, and precisely what it is that he has got.

From the first, it was clear that the bill had some excellent features. But these were chiefly non-contentious. Certain abuses had grown up in the development of railway practice, which everybody but their greedy beneficiaries agreed to be abuses, and which everybody but themselves was willing and even eager to correct. These were such matters as rebates, jugglery about terminals and terminal charges, the outrages committed by private-car companies, extortion under the guise of payment for refrigeration, etc. There was no objection on the part of any member of Congress having the slightest influence to the passage of laws rigidly forbidding and punishing these public evils. They were of a sort to clamor for regulation under the interstate-commerce clause of the Constitution, and every measure aimed at them met with instant approval in Congress. Indeed, the Senate itself went far beyond the House in

the stringency of the provisions aimed at such railway wrongs. In general, it tore the Hepburn bill to pieces, so that its printing in the amended form looks very much like a map of the earthquake section of San Francisco; but in no respect did the railroad-ridden Senate outstrip the House more clearly than in sweeping clauses levelled at these incidental railroad abuses. It restored the criminal clause in the law against giving rebates. It reduced the pass mischief to a minimum. It brought sleeping cars and express cars under the scope of the act. It forbade railroads to own coal mines. It made pipe lines common carriers. There was, in a word, a perfect enthusiasm and unanimity of reform in all these respects. The President's recommendations were, in that sphere, far exceeded. There was practically no opposition to these wholesome reforms; and they could have been enacted into law in a month as really non-contentious, had they not been mixed up with the bitterly and long-contested clause conferring upon the Interstate Commerce Commission the power to fix railroad rates.

This was the one thing for which President Roosevelt went to battle, and we need take only the testimony of his friends to conclude that he comes back defeated. It is not necessary to go over again the acrimonious charges and countercharges of the past fortnight. It is sufficient to go to President Roosevelt's messages and speeches, and even his letter of May 14 to Senator Allison, to put it beyond mistake that he desired to give all power to the Commission, and to keep railway rates out of the courts so far as could be done constitutionally. But the bill, as amended, throws everything into the courts, which may "enjoin, suspend, or annul" any rate whatever made by the Commission. As a last rallying-point, the President and his friends stood for the words "in its judgment," as defining the powers of the Commission. Commissioner Prouty thought it vital that these words should remain in. But they were stricken out, 50 to 24. The point is, of course, that they seemed to warrant the exercise of both legislative and judicial powers by the Commission. It is highly doubtful if Congress can delegate any such powers; but, to solve all doubt, the Senate struck out the last thing in the rate-making clause which made it look as if it had what Senator Bailey calls "teeth."

The bill, as we have said, contains many meritorious and needed features—depending, however, Bunsby-like, upon their application. If rigorously enforced, they will go far to cure long-standing evils. But, we may be sure, the people will at once pass to other things. If the bill had failed, there would have been a great outcry and agitation; pass-

ed, it enters at once the limbo of things fully discounted, and of which the country is "tired," and politicians will turn restlessly to other issues.

REPUBLICAN FOREBODINGS.

Worried before over the outlook for the Congressional elections this year, the anxiety of the Republican managers is visibly heightened by the occurrences of the past week in Washington. It may well be. Such strained relations between the President and the leading members of his party have not been seen for years, if ever. The most damaging charges against the President were made in open Senate, and not one Republican Senator rose to defend Mr. Roosevelt. Even Lodge left off running to the telephone. When the breach between Cleveland and the Senate was at its worst, there was always some Senator to speak up for him; but the Republican oracles have all been dumb. The President was attacked with the greatest directness and particularity; Messrs. Tillman and Bailey challenged the Republican Senators to reply, but they all sat silent. Their silence was most eloquent, politically. It testified strikingly to the distrust and dislike which Mr. Roosevelt has excited in the minds of the chief Republican Senators. So extraordinary a party situation cannot fail to be reflected in the Congressional campaign.

The troubled Republican managers at Washington are, reports the *Herald*, pointing to the fact that "no Republican President ever before sought deliberately to defeat his own party with Democratic aid." The effect of the disclosure that Roosevelt was concerned in such a scheme will, they fear, have "a stunning effect upon the straight-party men and paralyze the organization." Accordingly, their efforts are to be directed to restoring the shocked patient, and causing the symptoms of paralysis to pass away. This they propose to accomplish by calling in the physicians of the American Protective Tariff League. The plan is to rally the demoralized party by a galvanic stand-pat campaign. It is to be opened in Philadelphia this week, with Speaker Cannon as chief lauder of the all-wise and unchangeable tariff. By making a loud noise in that way, divergent voices within the party are to be drowned out.

These tactics are the natural resort of a certain order of mind, but they are not even shrewd, in the circumstances. If the party is divided about Roosevelt, it is still more badly split by the tariff. The revelations about cheap sales abroad by protected manufacturers who exact the uttermost farthing from the American consumer, have stirred many Republican consciences to revolt. We have not forgotten what Gov. Guild of Massachusetts wrote to the President last fall. Of what advantage would it

be to the stand-patters to keep Pennsylvania but lose Massachusetts? Tariff revision sentiment is strong among Republicans in many parts of the land, and cannot be stilled by the loudest beating of stand-pat drums. "President Roosevelt and the Republican party which he leads, are for tariff reform," declared the Portland *Oregonian* of May 11. With Republicans all over the country believing and asserting this, how can you turn the Congressional campaign into a hurrah of the stand-patters?

A more skilful, if equally insincere, strategy is advocated by the *Oregonian*. This consists in drawing party lines taut. "The true test of Republicanism is to vote the Republican ticket." That is, in effect, the platform which the *Oregonian* lays down for the June election of Representatives from its State. A Democratic county convention had affirmed that "a party exists to maintain principles"; but the Portland editor shows the folly of that. He denies that it is the true function of a party to "sit perched forever like a fat Buddha on a pedestal and eternally utter abstract propositions." "No party that is worthy of public confidence exists merely to maintain principles." Precisely: the main thing is to win elections and get the offices. So let tariff reformers and stand-patters sink their differences and vote alike for the grand old party that doesn't know its own mind except on the point of liking uncommonly to be in power.

Even, however, if there could be agreement upon such a policy of waiving principles and going in for the offices, Republican reasons for apprehension would scarcely be lessened. The party has suffered blow after blow. Perhaps the heaviest one came from the revelations of the way in which previous Republican campaigns have been corruptly financed. The managers have had their ignominy disclosed. That they could endure, but they have also lost their insurance money for this year at least. The two things together make a burden greater than they can bear. It is not strange that they look forward with trepidation to their task of saving the country without the aid of funds stolen from widows and orphans.

Behind all these uncertainties of policy and ways and means, lies the uncertainty how the President will interpret the election. If the Democrats win, he will be tempted to say to his party: "There, you see what comes of not listening to me. Besides, I always did get on well with Democrats." If the Republicans succeed, he would probably, in like manner, take it as a personal endorsement, and demand that all of his miscellaneous programme be written into law at once. But there are thousands of influential Republicans who would prefer, rather than that, to see their party beaten. This adds dubiety to

the prospect. Prophecy is always the most gratuitous of blunders, but this may be said with perfect safety: if the Democrats do win the next House, even by the narrowest margin, it will be accounted a great Republican disaster, in view of the large Republican majority in the present House. And President Roosevelt will be held, justly or unjustly, accountable for it, exactly as President Cleveland was for the Democratic débacle of 1894. In that event, the President's philosophy, personal resource, and political skill will be put to a ruder test than they have yet had to undergo.

CHEAPENING THE CANAL.

Lovers of logic and consistency, among whom we venture to reckon ourselves, must be profoundly disturbed by the course of the Administration in purchasing supplies for the Panama Canal. If we are to stand pat, let us stand pat, without shuffling and compromise. If the glory of the country, the development of its manufactures, and the wages of its workmen demand that we pay from 25 to 500 per cent. more for home than for foreign products, let us all, including our rich Government itself, put our hands into our pockets and settle our heavy bills like gentlemen. What is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander, even if that sauce happens to be the blessed protective tariff.

This question of alien machinery and materials for the Panama Canal is not raised for the first time to-day. Some time ago the Administration bought some foreign-built vessels on the wretched pretext that they were much cheaper than anything to be had in this country. Then Secretary Taft, in a letter published last January, appealed to Congress for specific direction whether or not he should continue to purchase in the cheapest market; but the oracles of Congress have remained dumb. And now a new case vexes the soul of Mr. Taft. A Scottish firm is the lowest bidder for some dredges; the Maryland Steel Company comes next. Shall the Government pay a domestic corporation from \$60,000 to \$70,000 more and thereby protect American capital and labor; or shall it turn to the Scot and thereby strangle an infant industry in its cradle? If the Government, which is far from bankrupt, is justified in patronizing the canny Scot, why should not the individual enjoy the same privilege? Government money is certainly not so tainted that beneficiaries of the tariff will haughtily spurn it. Indeed, your protected interest is notoriously as insatiate as the daughter of the horse-leech.

The sophistry by which Mr. Taft persuades himself that he should buy in Scotland could be torn to shreds in a moment by Speaker Cannon or Secre-

tary Shaw. As a precedent, the Secretary of War cites the purchase of large amounts of meat in Australia for the army in the Philippines—merely because the Australian meat cost about half as much as that brought from the Pacific Coast. But this example proves nothing except Mr. Taft's callous indifference to the prosperity of American packers. The foreigner pays the tax; and embalmed American beef is better for the stomach of any patriot than the juiciest sirloin produced by the pauper labor of Australia. Still another plea advanced by Mr. Taft is that Panama is "outside the tariff wall." That, on the face of it, is a mere quibble. He should view the tariff wall not as a physical entity, but as a spiritual conception. The appropriation act of 1875 expressly declares that the Government must give preference to American material; and to that act he should conform in spirit as well as in letter. The mere fact that the material is to be used in Panama does not alter essential relations. When Mr. Taft refuses to buy of the Maryland Steel Company, the Maryland Steel Company is in so far forth denied the boon of protection, and a deadly dagger is driven into the heart of one of Dingley's darlings.

In the course of this discussion some men who are secretly tariff-reformers—whatever creed they profess—have maintained that, unless the Government can buy abroad, our home manufacturers will form a combination to charge extortionate prices. No argument could be more irrelevant. The great practical benefit of protection, as we have learned by abundant experience, is that it makes possible just such effective combinations. That is exactly what the tariff is for. It is intended to give the American a weapon by which he can extort from the consumer the highest possible price. If the tariff failed to accomplish this, it would fail in everything. Adherents of protection who complain that the life is squeezed out of them by the Trusts, are about as consistent as a clergyman who should object to religion on the ground that it converts men from sin. So long as we are bound to have a tariff, let us look it squarely in the eye and know it for what it is.

Toward the end of his latest utterance on this topic, Mr. Taft lets the cat wholly out of the bag. "Some purchases," he says, "have already been made abroad and a saving effected in the purchase of comparatively small quantities of cement. In the construction of the canal an enormous quantity of cement will have to be purchased"; and presumably there might be enormous savings. In fine, Secretary Taft has a sneaking desire to build the canal cheaply. We have known some men and more women who are inspired by this sordid wish to get their clothes, their furniture, and even their houses at a cost as low as

may be consistent with good quality.

These bargain-hunters have been sternly rebuked by the high priests of protection. Every devout worshipper of the McKinley and the Dingley schedules thrills when he recalls President Harrison's apothegm of the stump, "A cheap coat makes a cheap man." If a cheap coat casts such a terrible blight on intellect and character, a cheap canal would utterly corrupt our national conscience. The higher the cost, the greater our happiness, the more exalted our virtue.

SCHOOLS FOR GENIUSES.

A demand for special schools for the specially gifted is making itself heard in Germany. Notable among those advocating the plan are Wilhelm Bölsche, in his 'Weltblick,' and Dr. J. Petzoldt, in his 'Separate Schools for the Conspicuously Gifted.' Dr. Petzoldt of the gymnasium of Spandau feels his heart going out to "the highly endowed, who, misunderstood by those nearest to them, see their divine spark being slowly extinguished," for lack of proper training.

The neglected genius has always been more abundant in Germany than elsewhere, but Herr Bölsche and Dr. Petzoldt show us how to foster both unrecognized genius and the less elusive variety. The Doctor makes it clear that he is not lacking in sympathy for those slighted by nature. There are in Germany numerous schools for backward and feeble-minded children. In nearly 170 cities and towns about 12,000 of them are being educated by the State. In thus providing for them, Dr. Petzoldt asks, "Do we not allow the impulses of our heart to get the better of cool reason? Are not the especially gifted far more entitled to pity than the mentally disinherited?" He makes a strong showing for the feasibility of establishing special schools without throwing additional burdens on the State or sacrificing existing schools. He would select, say, from the fourth class of the gymnasium, twenty of the brightest pupils, to form the first class of the *Sonderschule*. The teachers, a picked corps, must be able to recognize clearly the peculiar mental gifts of their scholars. A special diary is to be kept for each. The natural sciences are to be given first place in the curriculum, the main object of all the courses being to train the student in "thinking to the very root of the subject, until hatred of superficiality becomes an instinct." The study of biology is expected to lead to a higher conception of art than prevails among the moderns, whose bizarre creations, Dr. Petzoldt incidentally remarks, are simply the result of ignorance of natural science. Psychology, biography, and English and Italian are to be compulsory subjects in the lower classes; the higher are to provide elective courses,

scientific, technical, artistic. The hours of instruction are to be limited to four a day, and two hours daily are to be given to gymnastic exercises in the open air. Singing and drawing are not to be neglected.

The entire plan of instruction, by condensing two years' teaching at the higher classes of the gymnasium into one, is to enable the student to devote the time from the fifteenth to the eighteenth year to subjects usually taught only at the university. A specialist in nervous diseases, of thorough pedagogic training, is to be constantly on the lookout for any sign of over-exertion or abnormal behavior. As to the cost of establishing these *Sonderschulen*, Dr. Petzoldt argues that the 400 gymnasia and 100 *Realschulen* in Prussia would, through the elimination of their brightest pupils and teachers, save enough money to endow twenty-five *Sonderschulen*, while the gain to the country from an estimated steady supply of 3,000 unusually bright and specially trained young men would be incalculable.

There is, of course, no particular originality in the plan itself. The need of providing suitable instruction for gifted pupils has often and in various ways received practical consideration, not least in Germany itself. In the town of Mannheim, for instance, the most talented school children—about 10 per cent. of the total—have for some time been specially taught, though in the same class with those of average capacity. But there is a novelty in the almost aggressive attempt to lay down hard-and-fast rules for the treatment of genius, in disregard of the great difficulty which educators and philosophers have from time immemorial experienced in even defining the very term. If Lessing be right in maintaining that it takes genius to awaken genius, Dr. Petzoldt's initial difficulty would seem to lie in discovering the genius of the teacher. Nor is this all, for, in the new education, environment plays a very important part. Apparently, Dr. Petzoldt would as nearly as possible provide for the budding Moltkes, Bismarcks, and Kants the conditions that made their prototypes what they were. "Could a Moltke in time of peace and a Bismarck under a ruler like Frederick III. have attained their full development? Did not Kant employ all his ingenuity in the service of theological metaphysics until awakened by Hume from his dogmatic slumber?" It is true that the Faradays, Liebig's, and Schliemann's triumphed over a thousand obstacles, but Dr. Petzoldt would spare their successors an equally hard struggle—fatal, he thinks, in many recorded and unrecorded cases. It appears to him highly probable that, under adverse circumstances, even Goethe would not have given to the world his masterpieces (Schopenhauer has confessed as much for himself). He maintains stoutly—

pace Lessing—that Raphael could not have become a great painter had he been born without arms.

Dr. Petzoldt is well aware that genius may be simultaneously creative in various directions. But varied stimulus, while imperatively called for in some cases, must never degenerate into coercion. The obstinacy of genius in rejecting instruction is often only wise recognition of its own limitations—vide Alexander von Humboldt, "who ought never to have been forced to take music lessons." As the object of the *Sonderschulen* is eminently practical, it may be asked what test as to the quality of genius fostered in any given pupil will be applied on graduation. Or is the output to be measured in quantity? Productivity of the right sort was defined by Goethe to be the surest touchstone of genius, though its results be only an occasional song like Béranger's. But we fear there are many perplexing problems for the teachers in charge of genius at the *Sonderschulen*.

A SELECTIVE ART MUSEUM.

At the organizing meeting of the Association of American Museums, on May 15, Mr. Benjamin Ives Gilman, Secretary of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, made an important contribution to the new science of museology by advocating a selective or anthological principle for public art museums. Mr. Gilman believes that the duty of an art museum is not primarily to afford instruction in archæology, but to minister to the pleasure that comes from the undisturbed contemplation of beautiful objects. With this end in view he would select from the possessions of a museum its finest objects, and exhibit them under the best conditions of light and space. The rest of the collections he would store or exhibit compactly for the use of students and investigators, holding such study collections open, however, to all applicants. In both the public and the study collections the arrangement would be chronological, but in the public galleries the arrangement would be based on æsthetic, in the study halls on scientific, considerations.

A twofold plea is made for this somewhat revolutionary theory of dualism. First, it is obvious that the public is unequal to the task of picking out the excellent exhibits from the mediocre or merely curious. As collections increase, the task becomes ever more vexatious. An entire public is forced to plod through miles of galleries, many of which appeal only to the professional student of art, possibly the hundredth part of the museum's public. Hence the duty of sifting the collections into an anthology. An ideal director would treat his possessions much as Matthew Arnold did the works of Wordsworth, making such a selection as should at-

tract interest and minister to culture. The special student, it is plausibly maintained, would also profit by the introduction of the selective policy. The greater part of the collections would be accessible to him, with a more compact and convenient installation, under favorable conditions for undisturbed study and in handy proximity to libraries, workrooms, and the offices of consulting curators.

The chief objections to the anthological idea were raised by Professor Goodyear of the Brooklyn Institute in a very trenchant but courteous rejoinder, to Mr. Gilman's address. Professor Goodyear held that the selection of the best is practically impossible, being based simply on individual taste or caprice, and that our only certitudes are of an historic sort. Hence history and chronology are the only safe guides for a director, and the best arrangement for the student will turn out to be the best also for the man in the street. Professor Goodyear's agnostic attitude as to decisions of taste represents a way of thinking widespread among scholars. It is based partly upon a praiseworthy caution, partly upon a less commendable distrust of the emotions. As a matter of fact, the dictum, *de gustibus non est disputandum*, is practically ignored by those who preach it most vehemently. There is an absolute consensus as to the finest periods of art and as to many individual works. No archaeologist hesitates to affirm that the Greek sculpture of the fifth century B. C. excels that of the fourth and third. There would be no dispute of the dictum that the Dutch painting of the seventeenth century surpasses that which precedes and follows it. Nor would any well-informed person deny the supremacy of French painting in the nineteenth century. If it were really true that taste is merely personal and helpless, there would be no such consensus of judgment.

Within these great periods, also, one does not hesitate to distinguish the varying merits of different works. The comparative mediocrity of Rubens in portraiture is generally admitted; the greater significance of Rembrandt's later works has become a truism; conversely, every one is familiar with Van Dyck's degeneration into an elegant but meaningless mannerism. We perceive in Vermeer an exquisiteness beyond that of the Dutch school, and we balance the merits of his score of surviving canvases as exactly as the tea-taster sorts tea by quality. There remains a fringe where judgment is varying—a certain number of debatable examples of art; but in all main matters these accepted verdicts of taste are quite as sure as the date on a birth certificate. Practically, a jury of connoisseurs and artists which should be asked to pick out from any museum the tithe best worth exhibiting, would agree in about three-

quarters of the cases. As to the rest, a broad-minded director would give them the benefit of the doubt, exhibiting all that obtained the suffrages of two or three competent judges.

As to historical considerations, it should be noted that Mr. Gilman and Professor Goodyear, representing the advanced and the orthodox schools of museology, would treat three-quarters of the exhibits in any given museum in precisely the same fashion. The difference would be not in internal arrangement, but in conditions of public admission, and in the disposition of, say, a quarter of the exhibits. Mr. Gilman believes the finest should be selected and advantageously shown; Professor Goodyear believes that no sorting should be made by the museum, but that the duty of selection should be left to the average visitor. Mr. Gilman looks forward to a large public enjoying impressions of art, and a small public deeply studious of its history; Professor Goodyear is skeptical as to the æsthetic public, but hopes for a great increase in the number of the studious.

We hold no brief for either view, and are willing to believe that both sorts of museums have their value. But, clearly, the unwieldiness of modern collections plays into the hands of the anthologist. Wherever the number of pieces is too great for complete exhibition, the anthological idea holds. For example, print and coin departments rarely show more than a mere fraction of their treasures at one time. Resourceful curators in such departments ordinarily arrange a small permanent exhibition of the choicest pieces, and offer also periodical exhibitions from the reserve. This is precisely the policy advocated by Mr. Gilman and likely to be adopted by the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, when it moves into its new building. One may readily foresee a state of things where the general collections of museums will be as congested as the print rooms are from the outset. The cumbered state of such museums, the fatigue and distraction of their casual visitors, the increasing inconvenience of their overgrown and badly dispersed collections to investigators, will eloquently plead the cause of the selective idea.

THE COMMERCIAL CONQUEST OF SINALOA.

FUERTE, MEXICO, March, 1906.

In three years a subtle change has stolen into the life of Sinaloa. Where there was formerly vague talk of progress, with an occasional electric-lighting plant or municipal water-works adduced as an example, while knowing ones insisted on their superior knowledge of the time when the railroad from Chihuahua would reach Topolobampo, and when steel rails would entice the slumbering lead mines of Topia to activity, now there is nervous restlessness

in the face of the actual fact that a great wave of industrial development is sweeping upon the State; that a railroad, with all the power and determination of the Southern Pacific Railway Company behind it, is actually being built through the fertile coastal plain; and that a well-financed land company is laying its hands upon the richest agricultural and grazing areas in the region. The effect of this, combined with the spectacle of in-rushing hordes of adventurers and investors, has been to disquiet a goodly portion of the people, who see in it, with more or less reason, the prospect of changes subversive of the old standards of living and threatening the existing social order. The wealthier classes, who hold the reins of power, number many who have travelled widely, have read much, and are not ignorant of the dominant habit of the Anglo-Saxon when he strikes deep root in a foreign soil. Already the foreign colony refers to this or that Mexican notable as being "anti-American," which is significant. The distrust of the impending commercial invasion has been communicated to the well-to-do masses, and the old-time cordial hospitality is less conspicuous than formerly, coupled with a sharp discrimination in prices, not to the advantage of the newcomer.

The working people—we may as well cease calling them *peones*, since even local usage is attaching the implication of a slur to the term—are indifferent to the ultimate results of the awakening which steam and labor-saving machinery, and their masters, may effect. They are conscious only that there is a keener competition for their services than formerly, and that this has raised the compensation from one hundred to two hundred per cent. At the same time the small planter has felt the scarcity of labor, and has raised his prices for corn and fodder and mules. The excessive rains which for two years past have damaged crops, are chiefly credited with the advance in prices, but this is only part of the truth. There is no doubt that the area under cultivation has declined because sufficient labor has not been available at the usual wages. It is difficult for the man used throughout his life to paying thirty to forty cents silver a day for ranch hands, to acquiesce in the demand for fifty cents to a dollar. He has not yet become as profoundly impressed as the common laborer with the urgent cry, from the mines in Sonora and across the Gulf of California at Santa Rosalia, for workmen, and ever more workmen, at two and a half to four dollars a day. He has not seen the shiploads of laborers disembarked at Santa Rosalia, nor the trains from Guaymas crowded with eager seekers after opulent rewards, hurrying towards Cananea, and he tries in vain to cling to the ancestral conditions while the formerly-contented workers around him are having their standards of values profoundly altered by the tales of riches so quickly won at the mines and in the service of the railroads. By not taking warning from the changes already wrought, he is thus widening the opportunity for the aggressive colonists who are coming to fill the gap.

The wiser heads perceive all this, and foresee its consequences. Hence the anti-American sentiment already noted as be-

ginning to spring up, the general increase in land values, and the unwillingness of many of the largest landholders to sell at any price. It will be hard to dispossess these sturdy Dons of their broad acres, though a multitude of the lesser ranchers must inevitably succumb. One device for their undoing is destined to hasten their catastrophe far beyond the effects of normal competition. Several years ago the Mexican Government granted a so-called survey concession to Don Luis Martinez de Castro, one of the most astute lawyers and politicians in the State of Sinaloa. The avowed purpose of this contract was to eliminate all faulty land titles, and to determine with exactness what lands were held by perfect title, all others then becoming *baldio*—that is, public and open to location. The concessionaire was accordingly required to survey, at his expense, all the lands of the State, and was given power to summon all landholders to produce their titles, in accordance with which and the laws touching the questions of *demasias* and *excedencias** the boundaries were to be adjusted and permanently fixed and marked. The gaps thus discovered between neighboring estates would, of course, be *baldio*, as likewise would be all other lands to which perfect title could not be proved. In compensation for these services the concessionaire was to receive one-third of all lands declared *baldio* in the State, and to have the right to locate in accordance with the land laws as much more of such lands as he might choose. The only limitation of this right was that conceded to the original occupants of lands whose title proved faulty, whereby they might, within a specified time, rehabilitate their claim to ownership by purchasing the land back from the Government and the concessionaire at the Government price per hectare, which at present is \$1.30 silver, or nearly 53 cents per acre.

This method of farming out a public function to an individual, whose self-interest would naturally cause him to subvert rather than sustain the old claims to title, is one with which the foreigner can have no quarrel, if it pleases the people who choose to adopt and submit to it. In fact, at the present time, it is operating distinctly in the interest of the foreigner, since this princely grant has been conveyed by the original concessionaire to the Sinaloa Land Company, a corporation financed and managed in the United States. Whether it pleases the people of Sinaloa is another question. It undoubtedly is acceptable to many who have valid titles, and its necessary effect in bringing order out of the existing chaos of conflicting pretensions to ownership can be only beneficial. It makes tremendously for financial stability and ultimate progress, but it is producing grievous distress among a large, industrious population, which finds itself threatened with reduction from a state of agricultural independence to one of complete dependence upon daily wage, or to possible tenancy under landlords.

To appreciate the opportunities for the acquisition of valuable lands through the operation of this survey concession, one needs to go back to the rise of an old institution in Mexico, which had the sanction

of ancient usage in almost every country in Europe, with Far Eastern prototypes carrying the custom back into the unremembered past. This was the village community, from which so many of our common-law ideas as to *meum* and *tuum* are derived. In its essence it is a social solidarity, confirming by official instrument, in an extended and more highly differentiated form, the tribal relation of individual to individual and to the group. The rapid growth of the missions in Mexico among a people of sedentary habits, and the co-fraternity established in these groups, which were as essentially industrial as they were religious, tended naturally to just such a democracy as one of these village communities finally became. The recognition of absolute equality among all the members of a group was necessary as a means for discipline under that theocracy which the priests sought to establish, and in large part did maintain. Accordingly, royal letters-patent were issued to such groups of individuals for lands to be held and enjoyed *en mancomunidad*. A *fundo legal* of the "pueblo" was set aside, 1,200 *varas* square, with the village church in the centre, forever inalienable from the pueblo or community as a whole; a very close analogue to the old English village-green. Outside of this lay the *ejidos*, for residences and private gardens, and surrounding these in turn lay the *terrenos* for general agricultural and pastoral uses. The boundaries were determined by reference to well-known geographical features as landmarks, all duly set forth in the royal patents; but unfortunately these documents undertook to declare the areas of the lands included within the boundaries, which necessitated rude guesses at the distances between landmarks. In level country the errors need not have been very great, but in the mountains it was nearly all the result of surveying by the eye and the judgment of the observer, aided now and then by a compass. This laxity on the part of the *peritos* or estimators (we dare not call them surveyors) extended to all lands, so that in effect a recognition and certificate of landmarks was about the sum total of the benefits secured through their services. From this has arisen the conflict of boundaries which the recent survey concession is destined to remove. Whether copies of these ancient titles were kept in Spain or not, certain it is they were not recorded in Mexico. It was assumed that a man would guard his own. If he lost the very necessary royal charter to his ancestral acres, so much the worse for him, regardless of warfare, fire, and the "moth and rust" that doth corrupt. It probably assumed also that the Church was the greatest and most enduring fact in these communities, and that the priest, with his strong-box, was the natural protector of the people's interests; therefore, that the pueblos' titles would rest securely in the inviolable sanctity of the house of God. Such, in truth, is the view expressed by many a padre in his memoirs and correspondence.

To-day it is indeed a rare pueblo that has its priest; that does not see its church in ruins; that does not hunt in vain for its precious titles, or treasure some torn, discolored fragments, or perhaps a rude copy, lacking in some essential to establish its

authenticity. Sometimes, in the last extremity, after loudly proclaiming "Tenemos los títulos ileños" (We have the titles free from injury), they produce in court an unattested document, setting forth that such a one conveyed to such another his rights under a title, etc., giving dates and extracts perhaps from the original title, but insufficient to do more than establish what the universal testimony of all men for leagues around would have equally and better confirmed, viz., that the parties pretending to ownership had inherited from their immemorial ancestors lands recognized as theirs by virtue of an ancient royal grant. To the mind of the layman the existence of the pueblo, with its population so long rooted to the soil; the tradition in favor of inheritance from early ancestors who as a group received recognition of an ancient sort of tribal right to the soil, thus generously and justly confirmed by monarchs zealous, as all the world knows, for the welfare of their Indian subjects; the general assumption that the land is more likely to belong in strict justice to those who, as well as their fathers and grandfathers before them, were born and reared upon it, than to some one else who perhaps never even looked (unless perchance once or twice in envy) upon the soft beauty of its fertile *vegas* and swelling wooded uplands—to the mind of the layman these things are sufficiently conclusive, and he would know how to frame laws to protect helpless men and women and children in such rights. But the law flourishes in a realm of logic apart; and in the end, after the wave has swept over, others will come maintaining a tenure which will bear analysis under this inscrutable logic. After all, it is no more inscrutable than nature's disregard of the individual in the general scheme of racial development.

The immediate effect is that vast seeming injustice is to be done, people rendered homeless, desperate ones robbed by disreputable lawyers, who, instead of advising their clients to "agree with thine adversary quickly, whiles thou art in the way with him," will encourage them to cast aside the scanty relief which the law affords, in reliance upon a hopeless contest on flimsy documentary evidence of rights, exhausting the last dollar that had better have been paid out for a new title. Some of the *herederos* (for the owners of right in these pueblos are, in both common speech and in legal phrase, called heirs), have taken refuge in the arms of the money-lender, sacrificing large areas to protect their houses and garden plots, which, however, is the most rational procedure, under the circumstances, for those communities which are financially powerless.

The tide of foreign colonists is just setting in upon Sinaloa. It will be at full flood in about twelve months, by which time, the Yaqui, Guadalajara and Pacific Railway, as the Southern Pacific calls its west coast line, will be well on the way to Culiacan. It is now completed from Guaymas to Torin, on the Yaqui River, and is being built northward from Mazatlan at the same time. Shiploads of steel rails have arrived at Guaymas and Mazatlan, and other shiploads are afloat. It is significant that the Southern Pacific Company has found the cheapest market for steel rails for Mexico to be, not in the United

* See the Nation, vol. 77, No. 1993, p. 205.

States, but in the English-managed iron and steel works of Spain. It was widely reported at one time that the Gould interests were supplying the sinews for the Kansas City, Mexico and Orient Railway, which contemplates a trunk line from Kansas City to the splendid port of Topolobampo, of which a portion is now built in the United States, another section completed and operating on the central plateau of Mexico to the eastern base of the Sierra Madre, and a third section open for traffic from Topolobampo, sixty miles eastward to Fuerte. It is difficult to understand how such experienced railroad managers could have permitted so important a concession as that for a north-and-south coast line through the broad, fertile plain fronting the Gulf of California to escape them. It was a vital point in the success of the transcontinental railroad; necessary as a feeder, without which practically no through freight to and from the west coast can be expected to choose that route. The Southern Pacific has made a great strategic move in securing the concession. It makes that company master of the situation, able to develop one of the few rich virgin areas of large size north of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, and to offer an outlet via Mazatlan, Tepic, and Guadalajara to the central plateau, the City of Mexico and Atlantic tide-water at Vera Cruz, and in the other direction via Guaymas, Mex., and Benson, Ariz., to the great transcontinental trunk line east and west.

The agricultural and mineral wealth of the territory thus controlled is enormous. It is a fair presumption that systematic advertisement of the region as one with lands as rich as, and a climate softer than, California will produce here a vast boom in real estate, and a crowding in of fugitives from Northern winters to revel in the balmy air, and to make merry amid the ideal beauties of rocky promontories and blue sea and dashing surf of Mazatlan, at once the most picturesque and salubrious port in the southern latitudes of North America.

COURTENAY DE KALB.

JAPAN'S FIRST POST-BELLUM BUDGET.

TOKIO, April 24, 1906.

Let me begin this letter by saying that, misled by a usually trusty source, in my letter of March 31 I included in the list of foreign war loans a 4 per cent. 100-million loan which antedates the war. The part of war costs thereby balanced is covered by loans authorized in the new budget.

The Diet met on December 25, organized, was formally opened by the Emperor, and immediately adjourned till January 22. Meanwhile, the Ministry changed. The Katsura Cabinet, first organized as a makeshift, was the longest-lived and most eventful since the Constitution took effect. In war, it won the people's trust and praise. It became a victim of unpopular terms of peace. Deaf to rising clamors for an extra session of the Diet to let the nation share in plans for peace and fiscal readjustments, it meanwhile placed large foreign loans in July and November. After the "Portsmouth surrender," unwise police methods turned protests into riots. A late promise to convene the Diet on

the return of the peace commissioner from Portsmouth endangered treaty ratification, and so, unkept, became a *faux pas*. After that, prolonged discussion and small concessions at Pekin brought more surprise and disappointment. Strong restraints on press and agitators kept firm the Ministry's grasp on Government, but acted as a ceaseless irritant. In time, the nation saw that Russia's vitals were safely wrapped in thousand-leagues, that "awakened China" is, like other States, a suspicious ingrate with new confidence of strength, and that some such terms at Portsmouth and Pekin were after all inevitable. Meanwhile cleavage between Ministry and nation became a chasm. Unusually late assembly and the long New Year vacation of the Diet allowed the Ministry unhindered to bring negotiations for ending war to a close. Then, even before Baron Komura was back from Pekin, it adroitly passed the reins of Government over to the Saionji Ministry, and so smoothed the way for post-bellum readjustments.

The change of Ministry before the Diet could strike a blow deftly dissipated a pent-up storm. Many things favored the smooth and rapid working of the Diet, and gave an amazing sum of legislative grist. The new premier, Marquis Saionji, enjoys the twofold prestige of liberal views and aristocratic associations. Successor of Marquis Ito as head of the Seiyukai (Friends of the Constitution), he was sure of devoted support by the strongest political party—for in Japanese politics personal attachments have greatest weight. By a catholic choice of colleagues, he avoided the resentment of those who oppose party government, and also conciliated a variety of influential interests. While others had sharply criticised the recent policy of the Katsura Cabinet, he kept an "open mind," and rather upheld the unpopular measures as unavoidable. Aid and sympathy, won by his tactful leadership, made expeditious and fruitful what was expected to be a stormy and intractable Diet.

In presenting and explaining the budget, both Premier and Finance Minister disarmed opposition by the frank avowal that the new Ministry had perforce adopted the budget of its predecessor, and so could be responsible only for its execution; that for want of time it had been unable to shape post-bellum plans for industrial and commercial expansion. In its main features, the budgetary scheme includes the budget proper, which is divided into ordinary and extraordinary parts; two supplementary budgets to cover deficits; a special supplement to complete the war budget, which is treated as a unit; a bill to continue the special war taxes; and a bill to create a sinking fund for extinguishing the war debts—the last two features being embodied in separate laws. With only slight changes, this scheme was made law. In the normal budget and in each supplementary budget, some part of the expenditures had been paid and some part of the loans placed by authority of Imperial decree. Furthermore, the war policy of economy by postponing public works of less urgent nature was continued, and the sums so saved were used to balance budgetary accounts. But, as much analysis and detail would be confusing, a summary statement of the

main results will best show post-bellum fiscal measures and conditions.

The first supplementary budget covers, out of Treasury surplus, a war contingent fund deficit of 7.2 million yen for the last fiscal year. The second supplementary budget pays another deficit of 46.7 million yen, viz., 43.35 millions debt redemption paid from the last foreign loan, and 3.36 millions military pensions and sundry expenses paid from Treasury surplus. The war supplementary budget borrows 450.45 million yen to pay costs of repatriating troops, military and naval rewards, enterprises in Manchuria and Korea, and deficits caused by rising prices. Of this sum, 88 millions had been borrowed, leaving only 362.45 millions to be placed. Furthermore, in connection with the purposes of the first supplementary and the war supplementary budgets, payments of 28.8 and 60 millions respectively had already been made by authority of Imperial decree, and so do not figure in the budgets. All the supplementary budgets were voted as proposed.

In the normal budget, the main change made in the Government proposals was a reduction of five millions in expenditures for army and navy restorations, and a corresponding reduction in the amount of loans required to balance the budget. As adopted by the Diet, the normal budget for 1906-07 balances thus:

	Revenue.	Expenditure.
	Yen.	Yen.
Ordinary	391,186,958	354,925,475
Extraordinary	96,711,614	132,973,097
Total	487,898,572	487,898,572

The ordinary revenues are drawn from taxes, stamp and custom duties—together 278.3 millions; from Government enterprises and property 104.4 millions (tobacco monopoly 30.3 millions, salt monopoly 26.3 millions, railways 10.1 millions, posts and telegraphs 30.2 millions, forests 5 millions, convict labor 1 million), from interest and income from special funds 6 millions, from miscellaneous 2.5 millions. Extraordinary revenues include mainly 14.2 millions yielded by the sale of state properties, 2.2 millions taken from the forestry fund, 2.9 millions miscellaneous, and a balance of 75.8 millions raised by loans.

On the side of expenditure, the most striking fact is its increase. Put beside the average expenditures for the last three years before the war (1902-1904), the facts are (million yen):

	Yearly average.	Budget,	
	1902-04.	1906-07.	Increase.
Ordinary	167.1	354.9	187.8
Extraordinary	101.5	133.	31.5
Total	268.6	487.9	219.3

To the increase of ordinary expenditure the war added directly 172.5 million yen, viz., sinking fund for war-debt interest and redemption 110 millions, pensions and annuities 32 millions, expansion of the army 10 millions, for the navy 4.9 millions, posts and telegraphs in Korea and Manchuria and Saghalien 1.7 millions, costs of salt monopoly and tax collection 14.5 millions. These expenses must continue thirty years or more. Of the extraordinary expenditure, the war gave rise to 79.5 millions, which go through a contingent fund to army and navy restorations (45 millions), establishment and maintenance of garrisons in Manchuria and Korea (20 millions), and

sundry purposes. About 40 millions of this sum represent instalments on expenditures which must continue for at least six years. Other extraordinary expenditures are likewise of a recurring nature. Hence the normal budget of the next six years, if constructed on the basis of the present budget, would require at least 93 million yen yearly extraordinary expenditure, thus making a prospective yearly total expenditure of 447.9 million yen, *i. e.*, an excess over the average for the years 1902-1904 of 179.3 millions. With no change of revenues, that would mean after this year a yawning deficit of some 50 millions.

But in fact the present budget was constructed mainly on the basis of retrenchment adopted during the war. For new subsidies and enterprises and for resuming works suspended in the war, it appropriates only about 10 million yen. Besides, the schemes for post-bellum industrial and commercial expansion—long and much talked about—are promised by the Ministry for the next session of the Diet, and they must entail enlarged expenditures. Finally, the capital of the permanent funds which was used for the war should by law be restored. The Finance Minister informed the Diet that the Government could not now see its way to replenish those funds. Presumably, it will soon try to do so. In the face of all these facts, increase seems more likely than any reduction of expenditures in the next few years. Meanwhile, the 16 millions this year obtained from the sale of war prizes will in the future fall away from the present amount of extraordinary income. Also, a loan of 75.8 million yen was needed to balance the present normal budget.

In brief, the financial situation presented to the Diet in the budgetary scheme was this. The war adds to the bonded debt over 1,800 million yen, with yearly interest charges (after proposed conversions are made) of 82¼ millions. To pay this interest and cancel the principal, the Government proposed to set aside a yearly sum of 110 millions as a sinking fund. War pensions and annuities, military expansion and other new needs require an additional yearly recurring sum of 62.5 millions. As a resource to meet this 172.5 millions of yearly recurring expenditure, it was proposed to perpetuate the new and increased war taxes, with an expanded yield of about 160 millions, and to draw the remaining 12.5 millions from the Treasury surplus. Again, in the extraordinary part of the normal budget, the war causes an expenditure of 79.5 million yen for army and navy restorations, for creation and maintenance of garrisons abroad and sundry purposes. For this year, that expense is covered by sums obtained from the sale of war prizes and by loans. But about 40 millions of this sum must recur yearly for six years, and no source of revenue now exists to cover it after this year. The net result therefore is, that the normal budget this year could be balanced only by borrowing 75.8 million yen, and that at least 40 millions of the sum so covered must recur yearly for six years. But, from the normal budget so balanced, the continued policy of retrenchment has eliminated the less urgent expenditures by postponing the execution of works for which they were planned. Furthermore, it is commonly understood that schemes for post-bellum expansion, involving new

and additional expenditures, must be adopted by the next year's Diet.

The whole scheme thus outlined is now law, but it was a big and bitter pill. In three points especially it was assailed by Diet and press, *viz.*, the creation of a sinking fund, the continuation of the war taxes, and the resort to loans for balancing the normal budget. The sinking fund of 110 millions is solely to pay interest, and in about thirty years to cancel the principal of the war debt. Many thought it unwise thus to pledge a yearly sum equal to 65 per cent. of the whole ordinary revenue just before the war. It would hamper fiscal administration, put on the people unduly heavy burdens, surrender control of resources which might at times be more advantageously used, restrict the power by limiting the means for post-bellum expansion. Such an engagement now was hasty, because fiscal readjustments are not yet clear and settled. Worst of all was the means to maintain the sinking fund, *viz.*, to continue the hastily devised and temporary war taxes *en bloc*, and still to balance the normal budget with new loans—a course that would injure the nation's credit more than the sinking fund would raise it. Finally, the Opposition was irritated by the report that the Government had, without authority of the Diet, through its financial agent in England, stated its intention thus to deal with the war debt. Against perpetuation of the war taxes, it was urged that they were hastily devised and contained some specially bad features; that the nation accepted them with slight consideration or discussion, from patriotic motives and because of the clear provision that they should end within a stated time after the end of war; that to continue them without revision was to break faith with the people after their loyal support of the war, and deliberately to fix on a heavily taxed people a radically bad scheme of taxes. Finally, the critics argued that the Ministry props up its bad financial scheme by balancing the normal budget with loans which seemingly must be recurrent. Hence, in their opinion, the sinking fund to maintain the nation's credit rests partly on a bad tax system and partly on recurrent loans. In short, the Government proposes to pay its debts and provide means for expansion by making more debts. This leads Count Okuma and others to deprecate "the present Government's loan policy."

In reply to anxious questions in committee—for there and in party councils the struggle was decided—the Government said that the sinking fund was absolutely necessary to maintain national credit, especially with foreigners; that it would be efficacious in doing so; that such maintenance of credit was needful both to bear the war burdens and to get means for future expansion; that continuation of the war taxes was an indispensable support for the sinking fund and other new expenditures; that the Government would seek new sources of revenue to substitute for loans in the future normal budget; that, while the Government regretted the necessity of both measures, there was no other way out of the present situation; that therefore the creation of a sinking fund and the continuation of the war taxes were the main basis of the present budget and of future financial policy. The Government pressed these measures with all its power, and it was rumored

that their failure would cause the Finance Minister to resign. Strong elements of opposition in all the political parties brought, as usual, a compromise. The Lower House agreed to pass the measures. The Ministry agreed to appoint a comprehensively representative tax commission which should make exhaustive investigation and report within two years a scheme for tax revision, the Ministry to ask this Diet for an appropriation to pay the costs. The appropriation to pay the costs of a tax commission was, however, rejected by the Upper House. Meanwhile the budgetary scheme became law. This is in itself a feat, for Japan's budget is usually born in travail—sometimes with the aid of the Emperor's prestige; and sometimes it is still-born, being, by constitutional provision for failure of the Diet to act, merely a continuation of the last year's budget.

A few other facts will complete the survey of Japan's financial condition as shaped by the new budget. After deducting from the loans authorized in normal and all supplementary budgets those which had already been raised, there remained a total of about 425 million yen to be borrowed. The Finance Minister hinted that the indemnity receivable from Russia for prisoners' maintenance might be used to reduce this sum. But, assuming that the whole 425 millions are floated at 5 per cent. at home, then Japan's national debt will by present plans take this approximate form:

DEBT GROWING OUT OF THE WAR WITH RUSSIA.		
	Amount (million yen).	Yearly Interest (million yen).
Foreign bonds @4½%	600.	27.
Foreign bonds @4%	500.	20.
Home bonds @5%	705.	35.25
Total war debt	1,805.	82.25
DEBT NOT CONNECTED WITH THE RECENT WAR.		
Foreign bonds @4%	100.	4.
Home bonds @5%	about 475.	23.75
Total of other debt	575.	27.75
Grand total national debt	2,380.	190.00

Of the above debt not connected with the war, two blocks of "Home bonds" aggregating 93 millions were in the past sold in London. Of the war debt, "Home" 6 per cents, which are being converted into 5 per cents, were sold abroad to the amount of about 130 million yen. The new sinking fund to deal with the new war debt and other existing provisions to pay the debt not connected with the recent war will, if the plans are carried out, extinguish the whole national debt within the next thirty-five years.

To sum up, Japan's first post-bellum inventory shows, as liabilities, her debt quadrupled by a net addition of 1,800 million yen, her yearly expenditures almost doubled, most revenue organs hard-worked, her financiers still seeking some needful revenue resources. As assets, she finds still growing trade and industries, a larger field with much natural wealth, release from some overhanging dangers, an alert Government and people, a new national consciousness, credit and prestige. For her, the fruits of war weigh heavily in both scales.

E. H. VICKERS.

Notes.

We learn, pleasurably for the author's sake, that Mr. James Ford Rhodes's great task, a history of the United States from 1850, is now closed with two final volumes which will appear in November (Macmillan). As it stands and may stand, it covers a little more than a quarter of a century, for Mr. Rhodes has receded from his original intention to make 1885 his goal, and ends instead with 1877—that is to say, with the culmination of the reform movement which thwarted Grant's third-term adventure, which signally revived in 1884 and again in 1892, and has since been nearly dormant except sporadically.

A new translation of the Arabic fables known as the 'Kalilah wa Dimnah' is at present in course of preparation by Prof. Morris Jastrow, jr., of the University of Pennsylvania, together with two of his students, the Rev. William J. Hinke and Mr. Ellwood Austin Welden. Though the work is rapidly progressing, the book can scarcely be finished before a year or so. The authors expect to make a comparison of the text of the Beirut edition, on which their translation is based, with the other Arabic versions, and later to compare the Arabic with the Sanskrit, Syriac, and Hebrew's recensions. The book, when completed, will make two volumes, the first being devoted exclusively to the translation, and the second containing a general introduction, together with notes and illustrative material bearing on the text.

The University of Chicago Press is on the point of publishing 'The Legislative History of Naturalization in the United States,' by Frank George Franklin.

'The Mother of Clubs: Caroline M. Seymour Severance: An Estimate and an Appreciation,' edited by Ellen Giles Ruddy, will issue from the Baumgardt Publishing Company, Los Angeles, Cal.

The "World's Classics" of the Oxford University Press are to be augmented by a thin-paper pocket edition of Shakspeare in seven volumes or thereabouts, the text edited by Mr. Watts-Dunton, who supplies also a preface and a bibliography to each play, while Mr. Swinburne will give an introductory discourse on Shakspeare and his art. A part of the set will appear in the autumn.

The seeker after out-of-the-way knowledge will find much satisfaction in the 'Allegations for Marriage Licenses Issued by the Commissary Court of Surrey between 1673 and 1770,' transcribed from the original documents. Of the said allegations, those dating from the year 1674 to the year 1692 are bound up in a volume preserved in the Faculty Office; for all the later ones it has been necessary to examine the original records, many of them in a very dirty and dilapidated state. It is reckoned that there must be at least 9,800 of them in the MS. and not less than 20,000 names. The contracting parties appear to have belonged to every rank in social life, almost every town and village in Surrey being represented. A large number of the names known in past times in the Surrey parishes will be found in the collection. The book will be put out by Messrs. Goose & Son, No. 19 Rampart Horse Street, Norwich, in an edition limited to 100 copies.

Forewarned, forearmed. The first-fruits

of the lesson taught by the destructive fire in the Library of the University of Turin is a facsimile reproduction of a surviving codex, 'Il Messale Miniato del Card. Nicolò Roselli (detto il Cardinale d'Aragona).' The prospectus of this enterprise, which is under the direction of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Turin, proceeds from the firm of Fratelli Bocca in that city (New York; Lemcke & Buechner). The reproduction promises to be in all respects generous, as befits a codex of such importance in the history of miniature illumination.

A second edition of Thomas Gold Frost's 'Incorporation and Organization of Corporations' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) brings the book—a very good one for its purpose—down to January 1, 1906 (it was in 1905 that the first edition appeared). What has made a new edition necessary has been "the material changes made in the Business Corporation Acts" by State legislatures in a single winter. The author has revised his forms and added five hundred cases. His Digest of Incorporation Acts covers one-third of the book; it begins to look, therefore, as if an annual reissue would be called for. One of the White Man's most serious burdens is his State legislatures. It is, of course, monstrous that incorporation acts should be continually overhauled and changed as they are—frequently in the interest of jobbery. A rational and well-drawn act ought to last for a generation at least.

'Fiscal Reform: Speeches delivered by the Right Hon. Arthur James Balfour, M.P., from June, 1880, to December, 1905' (Longmans), betrays further on in the title the politico-controversial quality which pertains to this volume of nearly 300 pages. It embodies, to wit, also "a reprint of the pamphlet 'Economic Notes on Insular Free Trade,' and letters from and to the Right Hon. J. Chamberlain, M.P. (September, 1903)." The author offers it as a time-saving work of reference, and while it would suggest and bear a great deal of comment, we think none is necessary. Its place is in the hands of party men in England and in libraries generally.

Similar remarks are in order respecting 'Lord Curzon in India: Being a Selection from his Speeches as Viceroy and Governor-General of India, 1898-1905' (Macmillan), which has, what is lacking in Mr. Balfour's collection, explanatory notes, an index, and a portrait. This volume is much larger, too—of double the size, in fact, and is more manifestly a displaced statesman's apologia. Lord Curzon's political future, granted health, is likely to outshine Mr. Balfour's. His selected speeches are for those who have to reckon with him in domestic politics, and again for all libraries.

Mrs. Elizabeth (Robinson) Montagu (1720-1800) was a great lady in London, where she had a salon, knew everybody, and was called "Queen of the Bluestockings." In 1742 she married Edward Montagu, who died in 1775; he and the husband of the more famous Lady Mary Wortley Montagu were cousins. Elizabeth has a small place in literary history as author of an Essay on Shakspeare (1769), answering Voltaire, and of three "Dialogues of the Dead" in Lord Lyttelton's book, but chiefly by four volumes of her Letters, published in 1810 and 1813 by her nephew, Lord Rokeby. Her great-great niece, Mrs. Emily J. Climençon,

has now edited, with great diligence, her correspondence to 1761, and so much more than edited it that the two handsome and liberally illustrated volumes (E. P. Dutton & Co.) might be styled a memoir. According to this filial biographer, her subject was a wholly admirable person, "purest of the pure," beloved by her dependents, and "adored by men of all opinions." "She was one of the first people to institute Sunday schools. She was as interested in Betty's rheumatism as she was in the conversation of a duke or a duchess; a discussion with bishops and Gilbert West on religion, or with Emerson on mathematics, or Elizabeth Carter on Epictetus, all came alike to her gifted nature." Yet this publication will hardly add to her laurels, for, though it contains letters from Burke, Johnson, Sterne, Young, and other eminences, it offers little beyond everyday gossip. Thus, the numerous references to Conyers Middleton, his books and his wives, include nothing more vital than his deathbed comment on the uselessness of medicines, and Mrs. Montagu's complaint (1751) of "an insolence in the booksellers, . . . a set of wretches that live by other people's wits," in proposing to print by subscription his works, for which they had paid his widow £300. More elaborate is this sarcasm (1740) on her connection, Lady Mary: "She is a woman of great family merit; she has banished her children, abandoned her husband." Mrs. Climençon has all her great-great aunt's letters (between 7,000 and 10,000), enough to fill "a large bookcase"—if printed entire. As she intends to handle the rest of them, (probably the great majority) from 1761 to 1800, we may hope it will be done with stern compression.

The latest issue of "Newnes' Art Library" (Frederick Warne & Co.), devoted to Fra Angelico, is true to type. There are the usual large number of fairly good reproductions of works by the artist and the usual unimportant text, and there is no perceptible improvement in arrangement. It will be neither more nor less useful than its predecessors.

'The Drawings of David Cox,' as published in the Newnes-Scribner "Modern Master Draughtsmen," will hardly add to the reputation of an artist already much overrated, at least in England. As a man, Cox was deserving of affection and admiration, but his art is only a *bon ordinaire*.

Cox is one of "The English Water Color Painters" treated of by A. J. Finberg in his little book on that subject in the Duckworth-Dutton "Popular Library of Art," and Mr. Finberg treats him sanely, but the author's remarks about Turner are more novel. Briefly, he maintains that much of Turner's later work was dominated by the desire for immediate effectiveness; that it made him vastly popular and successful at the expense of some of the finer qualities of his art; and that it is as far as possible from being the natural expression of his personality indulged in in spite of public misunderstanding. "He wishes either to conciliate, or to astonish, or to flout his audience," and produced little work of pure inspiration; most of it being tinged with wilfulness and theatricality. The illustrations tend to reinforce the judgment of the reviewer that, taken all in all, John Sell Cotman was the finest artist among English landscape painters.

Those who may wish to know what the art of Goya was like, and why he is so much talked of, will find little to their purpose in Richard Muther's monograph in the Langham series (Scribners). There is a good deal about Goya's relations to politics and history, something about his personal character, a little about his relation to earlier and later painters, but nothing that gives any idea of his methods of painting, his technical merits or defects, the essential qualities of his work. It is a book about a painter, but not about painting.

'Jerome Bonaparte,' by Philip W. Sergeant; B.A. (Brentano's), is a work made up from the best-known sources for this subject. Jerome had most of the Bonaparte defects and few of the Bonaparte virtues. Mr. Sergeant writes only for the general public, but his literary powers are not sufficient to impart freshness or interest to such a personage. The author appears capable of better work:

Dr. Hyslop's 'Enigmas of Psychical Research' (Boston: H. B. Turner & Co.) is essentially a compilation from the records of the Society for Psychical Research, interspersed with censures on the apathy of the religious and on a generation which remains stubbornly indifferent and unwilling to consider these matters scientifically. For the rest, the book has the well-known qualities of Dr. Hyslop's work, which are not precisely calculated to stir the masses. It may be hoped, nevertheless, that he may be more successful in raising a permanent endowment for the scientific prosecution of these researches than the British Society, which has not yet collected the \$40,000 it demanded as a minimum.

The 'Robert Louis Stevenson Reader' compiled by Catherine T. Bryce, an Eastern primary-school teacher, will find acceptance outside the schoolroom. It is a mixture of simplified Stevenson biography and of his children's poems. The numerous illustrations in color are anonymous, but successfully catch the Willcox-Smith and Greenaway manner and are truly decorative.

A useful and suggestive list of books for boys and girls about gardening is appended to the May Bulletin of the Boston Public Library. It includes the making and care of gardens, a few stories and poems, as, Celia Thaxter's "My Island Garden," famous works containing descriptions of them, as, Homer's account of a Greek garden in the *Odyssey* and Hawthorne's of an American garden in 'The Old Manse,' and the leading American works on school gardens.

Three years ago, Messrs. Dodd, Mead & Co. put forth a blank book for original memoranda and for critical quotations called 'Plays I Have Seen'—a record over which (if the playgoing was indiscriminate) the maker might gloat or blush, like Pepys, in secret. Now the same firm issues in corresponding shape a ruled tabular blank-book for 'Magazine Articles I Have Read.' The sections are classified by topics, and for those who feel the need of this sort of aid to memory it will be just the sort of aid they will like. The duodécimo volume is neatly bound in green cloth.

The last number of the *Archæologia*, the tracts of the Antiquaries of London, contains a particularly interesting series of articles. Four relate to things Roman or

Romano-British, viz., the account of the excavations at Silchester for 1903 and 1904, by Mr. St. John Hope and Mr. George Fox, Mr. Ashby's account of those at Caerwent (Venta Silurum) for 1904, "The Linares Bas-relief and Roman Mining Operations in Baetica," by Mr. Horace Sanders, and Mr. Fox's "Notes on Some Probable Traces of Roman Fulling in Britain." There are two on English churches, viz., Mr. Cheales's description of the wall-paintings in All Saints', Friskney, Lincolnshire, and Mr. Webb's "Notes on the Augustinian Priory of St. Bartholomew, West Smithfield"; there is a paper on the price of Judas, "The Thirty Pieces of Silver" and the part they played in mediæval legend, by M. G. F. Hill; a paper by Mr. Clement Reid on the Island of Ictis and the Ancient Trade-routes to Britain, etc., etc. Most striking of all is Doctor A. J. Evans's account of the Prehistoric Tombs of Knossos, making up a third of the whole volume. This number (vol. 59, part 2), like all the Society's publications, is profusely illustrated.

A study of the situation in the Far East resulting from the recent war, and one to be warmly commended, is that of M. Louis Aubert, 'Paix Japonaise' (Paris: Armand Colin). One might nearly guess that the author has been a student of the *École des Sciences Politiques* from the care and thoroughness of his method and from the impartiality of his point of view. He allows no preconception of Japanese altruism to run away with his judgment, but, by copious quotations from Japanese statesmen and publicists, draws reasonable conclusions as to the near future of the East. If for a policy of a "Japanese peace" of the Orient the author had substituted a policy of "Hands off, Europe," he might have been a shade closer the mark, but he would also have missed a good title for a good book. American commercial and political relations with the Far East are treated in chapters on "Japanese and Americans" and "The Struggle for the Pacific."

We have received and, what is more, examined with interest and profit the 'Catalogo Completo' of the publications of the firm of Ulrico Hoepli in Milan, from 1871-1905. The first date is that of the year following the enterprising Switzer's arrival in Milan, and with a just pride he gives the chronology of his "vita editoriale libraria," with all the appointments, decorations, and royal gifts which have attested his merit. Another shows his small beginning with two volumes in 1871, and his output of 144 in 1904 (in 1897, 157). Next follows a list, year by year, and month, by month, of editions from July, 1896, to May, 1905, complementary to a similar one for the first twenty-five years in Hoepli's jubilee catalogue (1896). An author-catalogue succeeds, and finally a classed subject-catalogue. The volume well betokens the compiler's sense of his honorable profession. Among his clients have been Rosmini, Scartazzini, Beltrami, Gubernatis, Lanciani, Fogazzaro, Leo XIII. and Cardinal Mai, Luzzatti, G. Negri, Schiaparelli, and Villari. There is a notable line of manuals, dictionaries, and "libraries"; and juvenile books even of "indestructible" make are not *infra dig.* with this house.

To the energetic bibliographical publisher H. W. Wilson, in Minneapolis, belongs the honor of having given American libra-

rians for the first time an adequate and convenient record of their professional literature. The first (April) number of his new periodical, *Library Work*, contains a "Bibliography and Digest of Current Library Literature" for the year 1905. Eventually the material will be cumulated, and it seems to be the publisher's intention to cover some day the literature of past years also. A large number of the titles are accompanied by excerpts or summaries. In addition to this, the number before us contains various notes and news of interest to librarians, and a short account of the H. W. Wilson Company, with pictures of its new building. *Library Work* is sent free to librarians on request.

The *Library* for April is a Shakspeare number. It opens with some "Notes and Additions" to Mr. Sidney Lee's *Census of Copies of the First Folio*, by Mr. Lee himself. Fourteen new copies have come to his knowledge since 1902, making a total of 172 copies now known to be extant. One of the new copies was in this country in 1902, five more have followed since. In all, 61 copies of the First Folio are in America at the present time, and Mr. Lee predicts that about 1915 there will be as many copies here as in Great Britain. As he already has announced in the *Athenæum*, the copy which is now the property of Mrs. Leiter in Washington (No. LIII. in the *Census*) is really a perfect copy; the preliminary leaf headed "A Catalogue of the Severall Comedies, Histories, and Tragedies contained in this volume" being not missing, but bound in an unusual place. Among the other articles we might mention Mr. H. R. Plomer's story of the vicissitudes of the "Printers of Shakspeare's Plays and Poems," all, or nearly all, of whom seem to have been given to illicit printing, and Mr. Arundel Esdaille's survey of the most important Shaksperian publications of the years 1091 to 1905, numbering nearly 170, with upwards of forty editions and translations of his works.

The San Francisco earthquake is the prominent subject treated in the *National Geographic Magazine* for May. Mr. F. L. Ransome, of the United States Geological Survey, gives his reasons for believing that it was of tectonic origin. He sketches the geological history of California, and maintains, from the frequency of quakes—there were 768 shocks in California from 1850 to 1886, of which 254 were recorded in San Francisco—that the Coast Range is young and still growing. Hence the region, which is cut by long north-northwest faults into narrow blocks that are in turn traversed by many minor dislocations, is in unstable equilibrium. "Under the operation of the unknown forces of elevation and subsidence, stresses are set up which finally overcome the adhesion of the opposing walls of one or more of the fault fissures, an abrupt slip of a few inches or a few feet takes place, and an earthquake results." The records of the earthquake written by the seismographs at Washington and Cheltenham, Md., are also described, from which it appears that the time taken for the waves to cross the continent, 2,450 miles, was 6 minutes and 46 seconds. Mr. H. L. Bridgman gives an account of a voyage up the Nile to the head of navigation, Gondokoro, the most novel part of which was the passage through the sudd. He received a very fa-

vorable impression of the country under Anglo-Egyptian rule, and prophesies a prosperous future from the inexhaustible richness of the soil and adaptiveness for raising cotton, wheat, cane, rubber, and tropical fruits. The remaining articles are upon the recent eruption of Vesuvius and the spring "break-up" of the ice of the Yukon.

An International Type-Facsimile Society ("Gesellschaft für Typenkunde des 15 Jahrhunderts") has recently been formed with Dr. K. Haebler of Dresden, Dr. E. Voulpière of Berlin, Dr. H. O. Lange of Copenhagen, and Dr. I. Collijn of Upsala among the leading spirits. The purpose of the Society is to issue facsimiles of the types of as many incunabula as is practicable, giving two facsimiles for each type—Firstly, one full page of each in the original size, containing the M- or Qu-form on which Dr. Haebler based his classification in the 'Typenrepertorium,' and also a set of facsimiles of as many of the letters of the alphabet used as possible. Each member of the Society will have the right to ask for the inclusion of one facsimile. The annual fee is not expected to exceed 25 marks. The life-membership fee is 500 marks. The treasurer is the bookseller, Rudolf Haupt, in Halle a. S., who will handle the publications of the Society.

The expedition fever has taken hold even of Switzerland, notwithstanding its inland position. The privat-docent of zoölogy in the University of Bern, Dr. Walter Volz, will head an exploring expedition into the practically unknown Hinterland of Liberia, penetrating from Sierra Leone. The funds are furnished by the Geographical Societies of Switzerland, and the purposes in view are as much commercial and industrial as ethnographical and geographical. The scientific collections are to become the property of the museums of the Republic.

The first of the North German universities to agree to the matriculation of women is Jena, the territorial institution of the Thuringian States. Women are to be admitted to all the faculties. As is well known, only the six universities of South Germany have hitherto consented to this innovation, while those which in scholarship and prestige stand highest in the Empire, namely, Prussia's, are almost aggressively hostile to it. Not a few of the professors in these universities, in the list of courses offered, expressly advertise the fact that women will *not* be admitted to their lectures. Still, even here the ice is gradually breaking. The authorities in Berlin have announced that hereafter women students need no longer secure the special permission of each docent to attend his lectures, except in cases where the professor has especially announced that such permission is indispensable. In the office or "Quaestur" a list is displayed of those who do and those who do not admit women. Leipzig, again, has just decided that, beginning with the present summer semester, women, with the proper *testimonium maturitatis*, may be matriculated, but they will not be admitted to examinations in the law and the theological departments.

—The third volume of Smyth's Writings of Benjamin Franklin (Macmillan) continues the chronological development of

Franklin's career as scientist and politician. His activities in this period, 1753-1759, were many. The Academy was a favored scheme until it ran down under Dr. Smith, against whom Franklin had a grievance. Electricity, water-spouts, and house-heating gave rise to many an experiment and homely examples in illustration of his fondness for theorizing. The Almanac appeared regularly, and the immortal 'Way to Wealth' was thrown together in 1758. As postmaster, Franklin gained influence and favored his newspaper; as a public man, he supported a militia law, opposed the claims of the proprietaries to be exempt from taxes, and drew up a plan of union for the colonies. He was sent to England to present the case of Pennsylvania, and the letters written to his wife during this visit are among the most characteristic in the book. The description of an outfit needed by a printer in 1753 is of high interest, and it is shown that Franklin was interested in printing-offices from Antigua to Boston, aiding his nephew Mecom in the West Indies and Parker in New England. The editing is well done, and only one slip attracts notice—a variation in the spelling of the name Lutwidge. Mr. Smyth's resort to the original manuscripts shows that former editors have made one letter from extracts of two or more papers, and our editor has proved in more than one instance that matter has been omitted for no good reason, and that a draft is fuller than the letter as sent. Corrections in names and dates enhance the value of this edition.

—The Transactions of the Royal Historical Society (vol. xix., new series) for 1905 contains, besides the presidential address, some eleven research papers communicated by as many investigators. The retiring president, Dr. G. W. Prothero, delivered his farewell on February 16, 1905, his central theme being the relation of history to both literature and science. In general his attitude is a well-balanced reaction against the ultra-scientific conception of history. The gist of his contention is that "a well-written book is a work of art; and the writing of history partakes at least as much of art as of science. If it is said that history is science, I reply that history is *not* science, and never can be science in the proper sense of that word—the sense that applies to astronomy, to physics, or to biology—the sense that differentiates science from knowledge. I grant that the preliminary processes are scientific, or rather semi-scientific; for absolutely scientific they can never be. . . . But in compacting these results into a finished whole, in laying them before the reader, we pass into another field—the field of art" (p. 20). The somewhat labored conclusion is sound enough, if not exactly original. Incidentally Dr. Prothero lets drop the interesting remark that competent historical scholars would, for the most part, name Gibbon as "the greatest of modern historians."

—It so happens that of the eleven monographs contained in this volume the two from women's pens are of peculiar interest. Miss Enid Routh recounts from documentary sources the English occupation of Tangier (1661-1683), and the story sounds like an early Philippine experiment in

miniature. Pepys's sententious remark is cited: "It is plain that we do overspend our revenue; it is of no more profit to the kingdom than it was the first day . . . no more people of condition willing to live there, nor anything like a place likely to turn his majesty to account; it hath been hitherto, and for aught I can see likely only to be, used as a job to do a kindness to some lord, or he that can get to be governor" (p. 70). This has a very modern ring. Miss E. M. Leonard discusses the inclosure of common fields in the seventeenth century, and insists that this process, instead of being temporarily arrested in that period, was continuous. A curious bit of biography is rescued for us in the Rev. J. Neville Figgis's paper on the mediæval jurist, Bartolus (b. 1313). The claim is made that it was Bartolus and not Grotius who is the real source of International Law. The scholastic bent of Bartolus is well illustrated in the story recounted of his legal discussion of the property rights of Lazarus after he rose from the dead. The part that Americans are taking in the investigation of English history is shown by the fact that one of these eleven monographs—that on the Beginning of the King's Council—is the work of Prof. James F. Baldwin, associate professor of history at Vassar; while the Report of the Council makes mention of the recent presentation before the Society of a paper on The Midland Revolt and the Inquisitions of Depopulation of 1607, by Prof. Edwin F. Gay of Harvard, and also of the impending issue of 'The Minute-Book of a Presbyterian Classis in the Reign of Elizabeth,' edited by Roland G. Usher, a Ph.D. of the same university, already reviewed in these columns.

—Dr. Grenfell and Dr. Hunt, the Oxford scholars who from the first have been in charge of the field-work of the Græco-Roman branch of the Egypt Exploration Fund, and have proved themselves as skilful in editing as they are expert in finding ancient papyrus documents, have recently made an informal preliminary report of the results of their excavations during last winter and the early spring, at Oxyrhynchus. They report the most remarkable discovery yet made of literary papyri, with dates ranging from the second century B. C. to the sixth century of our era. In a Roman mound a heap of broken literary papyrus rolls was discovered. Amid hundreds of smaller fragments there were a couple of cores of rolls, each containing ten or twelve columns, several pieces containing five or six, and many containing one or two. One of the longer pieces contains about 150 verses of Pindar's pæans, with the authorship proved by a coincidence with an already known Pindaric fragment. The text is accompanied by elaborate explanatory scholia. Another long poetical fragment is from the lost play, "Hypsipyle," by Euripides. Of the prose MSS. several belong to extant works of Plato, Demosthenes, Lysias, and Isocrates. The most valuable of the prose pieces is part of an unknown history of Greece, possibly by Ephorus or Theopompus. Another prose text is part of a commentary on the second book of Thucydides, different from the extant scholia. In another Roman mound, fragments were

found of a library of which the owner had been interested in the lyric poets, and seems to have owned two or three MSS. of Sappho's poems, as well as one of Bacchylides. One of these fragments of papyrus contains more than seventy lines of Cercidas, of whom only fourteen lines were known before. A Byzantine mound yielded a vellum leaf (forty-five lines in all) from a MS. of a lost gospel, telling of the visit of Jesus with his disciples to the temple at Jerusalem, and their meeting with a Pharisee, who reproaches them with their failure to perform the necessary ceremonies of purification before entering the holy place, and describes in some detail the formalities which he himself had observed. The question of the nature and value of the gospel to which this fragment belongs, is likely to provoke much controversy.

—We will add that American scholars and libraries have not given to the Græco-Roman branch of the Egypt Exploration Fund the support which it deserves and might expect. It has published already in six volumes about a thousand documents of the Ptolemaic and Roman periods in Egypt, of high importance for philological criticism and for historical and archaeological studies; each document being provided with introduction, commentary, and translation. Now we learn of the most important discovery of all. Another season's work of exploration remains to be done at Oxyrhynchus, and subscriptions to the fund are urgently needed. The concession for excavation closes next year. The volume containing the documents, just discovered is expected to be published in the summer of 1907, and will be sent to all subscribers to the fund. The double volume of Hibeh papyri will be ready in a few weeks. Annual subscriptions (five dollars) may be sent to the secretary of the Fund, Miss Grace I. Gay, Pierce building, Copley Square, Boston.

—A third collection of historical portraits, this time of the worthies of the eighteenth century, is on view at Oxford. In the earlier portion of the series are specimens from the brush of Sir Godfrey Kneller (e. g., his portraits of Addison, of Trelawney, of Atterbury, etc.), and others of the foreigners by whom English art was largely dominated at this period, side by side with works by a younger school, essentially English in spirit and style. Chief of this prosaic but most praiseworthy band was Jonathan Richardson, represented here by his portraits of Matthew Prior (Nos. 14 and 15) and of Hans Sloane (65). He was followed by Thomas Hudson—his Archbishop Potter (64) is a magnificent figure—and by such excellent portrait painters as William Hoare (George Grenville, 81) and Joseph Highmore (Edward Young, 77). The first, however, to shake off the tyranny of Kneller and the fashion of the "face-painter" was Hogarth. Number 83, representing an "Assembly of Artists," is from his hand. Had it not been for him and Hudson's great pupil, Sir Joshua Reynolds, the British school would most probably have died a natural death. The work of Reynolds and of Gainsborough, Romney, Hoppner, Lawrence, the other great figures of the golden age of British portrait-painting, not to mention that of a number of other

artists, only inferior to these, is splendidly exemplified in the latter half of the collection. Among the masterpieces are Sir Joshua's portraits of the poet Warton, of Lord Rokeby, of Archbishop Markham, and the famous Gibbon lent by Lord Rosebery; so, too, are Romney's Warden Ogländer and John Wesley, Gainsborough's Doctor Buckler, and Lawrence's Lord Auckland, an astonishing performance for a youth of twenty-two. A word of mention must be given to the portrait of the Duke of Portland, by the American Benjamin West, and to the George III. and Queen Charlotte Sophia of the Scotchman, Allan Ramsay, who won court favor despite the claims of Sir Joshua.

—Taking it as a whole, the exhibition of this year compares more than favorably with those of 1904 and 1905. The persons represented, ecclesiastics, judges, doctors, statesmen, soldiers, are no less distinguished, while the works of art are far more attractive and more varied. Not only so, but, with the exception of three portraits of Gibbon—we have already mentioned the Reynolds—all these fine pictures have been brought together from the halls, common-rooms, and official buildings of this one university. The catalogue, as usual, is excellent; Mr. Cust's introduction is valuable; and the notes on the pictures, with their racy morsels from Hearne, Wraxall, Walpole, etc., are capital reading. An illustrated edition will appear shortly after the close of the exhibition on the 24th of May (H. Frowde).

BIELSCHOWSKY'S GOETHE.

The Life of Goethe. By Albert Bielschowsky, Ph.D. Authorized translation from the German, by William A. Cooper, A.M., Assistant Professor of German, Stanford University. Vol. I., 1749-1788, from Birth to the Return from Italy. Illustrated. Pp. xvi., 439. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905.

Was man in der Jugend wünscht, hat man im Alter die Fülle. To those who began their study of the great German in the good old days when texts were slovenly, and explanatory notes conspicuous by their absence, and one had to construct one's own biographical notions out of the clever flippancy of Lewes and the dry dust of Düntzer and Goedeke, the need of a real life was heartfelt. Of late years, indeed, much help has come. Apart from carefully annotated editions, there have been many essays and monographs from some of the soundest and most brilliant scholars in Germany. All these writings, however, were only partial; they gave us either views of Goethe from individual points, or discussions of certain periods or sides of his activity. It was reserved for Bielschowsky to make the bold venture of giving us the whole Goethe as he lived and wrought and triumphed, of drawing not merely the poet and student, but the man. And this was a venture after Goethe's own heart, for was it not Goethe's doctrine that in every writer the essential thing is the man? Further, in addition to his courage, Bielschowsky has brought to his task the two indispensable requisites: on the one hand, familiarity with the details of Goethe research, a world of scholarship by itself; on the other hand,

the ability to think and feel and enjoy independently and to write with clearness and charm. The present reviewer, who has waited long and impatiently for such a life, may well be forgiven, then, for beginning his remarks with one of Goethe's favorite adages.

Yet, alas, to quote another well-worn adage: *Habent sua fata libelli*. Just as Bielschowsky was about completing his monumental work, he sank into the grave. Never very robust, he was doubtless worn out with his absorbing devotion at the age of fifty-five. The first volume of the German original appeared during his life, the second (and concluding) volume appeared the year after his death. The translator says in the preface: "The second and last volume was so nearly completed before his death that it was an easy matter for others who were familiar with his methods and aims to finish it." What is meant by *finishing*? If nothing more is meant than bringing the book to a typographical and editorial conclusion, the judgment may pass. But if to *finish* means to preserve the same vital, informing spirit to the last page and sentence, then the translator is much too optimistic. One consideration will be quite enough to make us pause. In the second German volume 112 pages are given to "Faust." Now the veriest tyro ought to know that "Faust" is the reflex and running commentary upon the poet's innermost life, almost from boyhood to the grave. When we read in the German preface, then, that only the first 22 pages are by Bielschowsky and the rest by Theobald Ziegler, we can only shake our heads and ask, Do twenty parts Bielschowsky's and ninety parts Ziegler form the *Einheit* indispensable to any treatment, however humble, of the "Faust"? Verily, one need not be a witch at a riddle to suspect more than one discord between Bielschowsky and his "finisher." The very opening sentence of Ziegler (p. 591), "Faust ist eine wirkliche Persönlichkeit gewesen, vielleicht ein Schwabe aus Knittlingen," etc., comes upon us, after Bielschowsky's glowing generalizations, with the shock of a cold douche.

There are other discrepancies in this second German volume; some of them may even be due to Bielschowsky's own method of composition, to a slight weakening of his hold upon the complex subject. All such considerations, however, need not interfere with our enjoyment and appreciation of the volume before us, the first of the translation. Covering the first 417 pages of volume I. of the original, it ends with Goethe's return to Weimar from his travels in Italy. It is, to speak in German, *aus einem Guss*: a clear, homogeneous, sympathetic, and illuminating narrative and estimate of the first thirty-nine years of Goethe's life. We lay stress upon the term "narrative"; for the biographer's method is essentially that of the narrator, who tells first and explains afterwards, or, rather, who lets the explanation grow out of the narration. The method is, we repeat, after Goethe's own heart; the abstract and general are evolved from the concrete. At all events, we learn to know Goethe the man, we gain an intuition of the creative spirit shaping things to its conscious or sub-conscious impulses. And those thirty-nine years determined Goethe's individuality. Though he lived almost for-

ty-four years longer, though he produced after 1788 some of his best-known works. "Iphigenie," "Tasso," "Hermann und Dorothea," the "Meister," "Elective Affinities," not to mention his scientific and critical writings, all these later products emanated from a mind and were embodied in a style definitively formed. From 1788 on, there is endless variety, but there is no change.

Our first volume, then, presents to us Goethe in his formative period. The study is one of surpassing interest and value. To watch the growth of any productive spirit is a gain; how great the gain when that spirit is one which touches life at almost every point, enters fearlessly into joy and sorrow, struggles on and on toward an ever higher goal, until it reaches the clear consciousness of its powers and its limitations, an object-lesson for all thinkers! Through a good part of this volume, nearly one-half, the biographer is inevitably in competition with his hero as author of "Dichtung und Wahrheit"—a hopeless competition, of course; yet Bielschowsky has, it seems to us, kept very happily the middle path between a mere echo and résumé of Goethe's autobiography and a sham independence. He supplements, occasionally (though rarely) corrects, often presents the situation from a different side, and always guides his readers to a more comprehensive understanding. Even the professed Goetheaner will return from Bielschowsky to Goethe with enhanced pleasure.

The core of the volume is that part (pp. 254-367) which treats of Goethe's establishment in Weimar. Not that we think lightly of the concluding chapter, Italy; Bielschowsky's handling of Goethe's peregrination in the land of art leaves little to be desired. Still, the ordinary reader knows at least something, right or wrong, of Goethe in Italy; and, after all, the connection between literature and art is self-evident, whereas Goethe's early residence in Weimar is, even to the well-informed Anglo-American, quite *terra incognita*. In truth, it is not too well known even to the Germans themselves, all but the chosen few. Court dissipation, frivolity, favoritism, desertion of the poetic vocation—all these sins and many more have been discovered in the first Weimar period. How fundamentally wrong such a conception is, our readers can learn from Bielschowsky. True, he is not the pioneer in this field; notably he was preceded by Adolf Schöll in the series of studies entitled "Goethe als Staats- und Geschäftsmann," published originally in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* and republished in Stoll's volume, "Goethe in Hauptzügen." For the ordinary reader, however, Bielschowsky's account is the more useful because simpler, briefer, more genuinely biographical. At any rate, we behold now for the first time in English garb the man who literally made Weimar, made it the centre not merely of literary and artistic impulse, but the starting-point in social and political regeneration. One of the pettiest of German states, Weimar became under his guidance the model for its more powerful neighbors. That harmony of interest which we call modern Germany and which was sealed in blood forty years ago, on the field of Sadowa, started in Goethe's Weimar; we refer our readers to the conclusion of Herman Grimm's romance, "Unüberwindliche

Mächte.' When, in 1782, Goethe accepted his patent of nobility and the presidency of the Weimar Council, he had already given more than he was receiving. No man saw more clearly, carried out more strenuously, the motto: *Noblesse oblige*. During the eleven years from 1775 to 1786 he had but one abiding purpose—the regeneration of the duchy through the upbuilding of the young Duke. Accordingly, we see him throwing himself with wisdom and energy into everything, into finance and army reform, into drainage, agriculture, forestry, mining, even into the fire department. Common sense, improvement, enlightenment, humanity—above all, *economy*—were his ceaseless preachment. Never has a young ruler been moulded for the right with such utter frankness, yet with such marvellous tact, as Karl August was moulded by his prime minister, only eight years his elder. When at last in 1786 the prime minister literally ran away to Italy to seek rest for the body and rejuvenation for the overworked spirit, he could whisper to himself, as a *nunc dimittis*: My Duke is now able to rule without my daily presence.

Naturally, the unsophisticated will exclaim with honest regret: But all these years were lost for literature, for poetry; the genius of the German folk was fretting himself away over dollars and cents, ministerial squabbles, court intrigues, bureaucratic red tape. In truth, Goethe thought as much in moments of despondency. More than once Pegasus was on the point of kicking over the traces and bolting. Yet Goethe's calmer mood always led him back to reason. He learned thoroughly the lesson which many of his readers are only now beginning to apprehend dimly, namely, that a great writer's final training-school is life. In wrestling with the hard, arid actualities of life, Goethe acquired that poise of thought, that delicately adjusted moderation of utterance, which were to be thenceforth his chief distinction.

A single quotation will make our meaning clear. A sufficient number of our readers are acquainted with "Werther," the masterpiece of Goethe's youth. It is a work of which any writer might be proud, and—in a sense—Goethe himself never produced anything better. It is powerful, elemental. Nevertheless, in the light of Goethe's maturer genius, it is crude; it is lacking in poise and moderation. We ask our readers to compare with it the following, from the paper on Granite, based on the notes taken by Goethe during his Harz trip in December, 1777, though not worked out until 1784 (pp. 340-341):

"I do not fear the reproach that it must be a spirit of contradiction that has led me from the observation and description of the human heart, the most recent, most complex, most mobile, most changeable, most perturbable part of creation, to the consideration of the oldest, hardest, deepest, firmest son of nature. For it will readily be granted that all natural things have an exact relation to one another, that the searching mind does not willingly allow itself to be excluded from anything attainable. Let me, who have suffered and still suffer many things from the variations of human emotions, through their quick changes in myself and in others, enjoy the sublime peace which that lonely, silent presence of great whispering nature bestows, and let him who divines something of it follow me.

"With these sentiments I approach you, ye oldest, worthiest monuments of time. Sitting upon a lofty, barren summit, and

overlooking a wide landscape, I can say to myself: 'Here dost thou rest directly upon a ground that extends down to the deepest places of the earth; no newer stratum, no heaped-up, washed-together fragments have been deposited between thee and the solid bottom of the primeval world.' . . . In this moment, when the earth's inner powers of attraction and motion are exerted upon me directly, as it were, when the influences of Heaven hover about me more closely, I am attuned to the higher thoughts of nature, and, as the human mind is wont to see a soul and life in everything, there dawns upon my mind a comparison, the sublimity of which I cannot resist. 'So lonely,' I say to myself, as I look down from this utterly barren summit, and even at the foot in the distance can scarcely see a bit of puny moss—'so lonely,' I say, 'will that man be who opens his soul to none but the oldest, first, and deepest feelings of truth.' Indeed, he can say to himself: 'Here, upon the oldest eternal altar, reared directly upon the depths of creation, I offer to the Being of all beings my humble sacrifice.'

"Werther" was completed in the midsummer of 1774. We can now estimate the progress in these Weimar years. The transition illustrates Goethe's brief essay on Imitation, Manner, Style, which, although aimed directly at art, is also applicable to literature. "Werther" is in the author's best "manner"; the Granite essay is in his noblest "style."

High as we rate Bielschowsky's treatment of Goethe's first Weimar period, we feel constrained to admit that it might have been fuller in one respect, namely, in the elucidation of the purely personal element in the relation between Goethe and the Duke. Herein our biographer is less satisfactory than Herman Grimm in his "Goethe, Vorlesungen," ii. 1-22 (ed. of 1877), the lecture entitled "Carl August und Goethe in den zehn Jahren." Grimm's tone could scarcely have been more delicately sympathetic had he been an eye-witness of this extraordinary friendship. His charm is due for the most part to his appreciation of Goethe's poem "Ilmenau," given entire in Von Loeper's edition of the "Gedichte" (ii. 36-41). Composed for the Duke's birthday, September 3, 1783, it remained in manuscript until published by Goethe in the 1815 edition of his works. In 191 verses the poet sketches with all his cunning a daring situation. The language is veiled, yet—to the initiated—the thought is obvious. The poet pictures a hunting party camped by a fire in the woods; some of the portraits are still recognizable. Their youthful leader, however, is apart in a hut, asleep. Approaching the hut, the poet is challenged by his double, watching over the sleeper. The watchman refuses to reveal clearly who and what the sleeper is. With an indescribable mixture of delicacy and firmness he intimates his own shortcomings and their half-justification, but is scarcely able to tell whence he has come or how: *Wer kennt sich selbst?* As for the sleeper—

"A noble heart turned aside from Nature's path by narrow destiny. . . . Assuredly the years will give to his powers their true direction; meanwhile, with all his fondness for the truth, error is his passion. . . . Gloomily wild in mirth, boisterous without gayety, bruised and wounded in body and in spirit, he falls asleep on his hard couch, while I, silent and scarcely breathing, my eyes directed towards the free stars, half awake, half dreaming, can hardly shake off the dream-spell."

Truly, a unique blending of devotion and admonition.

A word or two upon the translation. Evi-

dently it has been made with scrupulous care and regard to our English idiom. It reads smoothly and reproduces the original closely. The passage quoted from the paper on Granite is a fair specimen of the translator's skill in overcoming difficulties. In view of this labor of love kept up through hundreds of pages, the generous critic will refrain from harping on minutiae. We note only a few passages in which the translator has made what may be called a slip. The description of Wilhelm Jerusalem (p. 157) is scarcely intelligible without the original (p. 159). And the same holds good of the paragraph (p. 207): "It was woman's work that compromised the misunderstanding between Goethe and the Jacobis, etc." The italics are ours; the original (p. 211) reads "Es war Frauenwerk, das den Zwiespalt zwischen Goethe und den Jacobis . . . ausglich." At page 231 the translator renders: "In 'Lillis Park' he [Goethe] has given us an exaggerated picture of such situations, portrayed in passionate Storm-and-Stress style." This is a sheer perversion of the original (p. 234); Bielschowsky wrote: "In 'Lillis Park' hat er einen mit genialer Heftigkeit gesteigerten Reflex solcher Situationen hinterlassen." That Goethe would ever have admitted his charming little poem to be in passionate storm-and-stress style, we take the liberty of denying; "Lillis Park" was in the storm-and-stress, but not of it, and Bielschowsky has not said that it was of it.

In the matter of illustrations, the American publisher has been generous where his German colleague was decidedly parsimonious. In this first volume alone we got ten, against two in the whole German original. Still, we should gladly have exchanged Goethe's House in Weimar for the Tischbein Goethe in the Campagna, which opens the first German volume; this Tischbein Goethe is the fitting accompaniment to the Italian Journey. Paper and presswork are excellent.

ENGLAND'S WHIG PARTY (1807-1821).

Further Memoirs of the Whig Party (1807-1821). With some Miscellaneous Reminiscences. By Henry Richard Vassall, Third Lord Holland. Edited by Lord Stavordale. With Portraits. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

This is an Old-World book, containing Old-World gossip, and written by an Old-World politician. Of new information it contains little or nothing; the topics with which it is filled can but slightly interest the readers of to-day. Few care to hear about the indubitable virtues and the equally indubitable dullness of the irreproachable Francis Horner. The vagaries the follies, the doubtful virtue, and the certainly hard treatment of Queen Caroline can now evoke neither a tear nor a smile. The meannesses of her contemptible husband are almost too petty to arouse indignation, and now too unimportant to kindle active contempt. Who can really care much about the dullness of Mr. Percival or even the so-called Peterloo massacre, which, after all, to any student of the State trials, will seem to have been no massacre at all? The plain truth is that the heroes, the patriots, the intriguers, and the villains of 1815-21 were a

very poor lot. Their goodness and their wickedness are equally interesting. Yet the Old-World character of Lord Holland's book lends it a curious interest. The reader who learns from it nothing which is, taken in itself, of any great importance, is yet perplexed by one question which well deserves consideration: Wherein consists the "Old-Worldliness" of the society of which Lord Holland was at once the member and the chronicler. Why is it, in other words, that the England of 1807-1821, which is divided from us by not quite a century, seems almost as unlike the England of to-day as are the times of Charles II.?

The first answer to this inquiry is, that the English society whereof Lord Holland has painted to the best of his ability the interests and the follies, formed, even in his day, but a small part of the life of England. It was, after all, little else than a circle of Whig noblemen, of Whig writers, and of Whig politicians. It was a little world which derived its importance from the special conditions of public life at the beginning of the nineteenth century. These conditions have changed, and no society now exists which really resembles the class of superior persons who met together at the dinners of Holland House. The reform of Parliament and all that went with it meant much more than a mere redistribution of seats, the parliamentary enfranchisement of the £10-householders; it meant at bottom the overthrow of a constitutional system under which the Crown, the nobility, and a certain number of rich merchants were virtually the body who governed England. No doubt men took a part, and an active part, in politics who were neither landowners nor men of wealth, but it was difficult for any man to obtain entrance into Parliament or to take any effective part in public life unless he found a patron in the Crown, or in some nobleman or man of wealth who could dispose of seats in the House of Commons. True it is that the Parliament more nearly represented the sentiment of the mass of the electors than is generally supposed by observers who note only the anomalies of a representative system which might seem framed for the very object of not representing the will of the people. A curious remark of Lord Holland's, that even the borough of Calne, where the Lansdowne "influence" was almost supreme, could probably not have been induced to return a member who should advocate the resumption of cash payments, is significant. Boroughs which were close or corrupt might occasionally, under the pressure of strong public opinion, show an unexpected independence. It may, indeed, be doubted whether on any great question, such as the resistance to the American Colonies, or the war with France, the unreformed Parliament ever substantially misrepresented the dominant feeling of the nation.

The system, however, which gave immense weight to influence and connection, made the personal character of a small body of statesmen and politicians of extraordinary importance. We feel through every page of Lord Holland's book the immense weight attributed in the political world of his day to the characters, the peculiarities, and even the manners of leading

politicians. Hence the best feature of the Memoirs: they contain valuable pictures of individuals. Lord Holland, indeed, was not, from a literary point of view, a great artist. He was, moreover, a thoroughgoing party man. He never for a moment forgot the principles or the prejudices of a good Whig—every one who opposed Fox was, in Lord Holland's eyes, in the wrong. But, for all this, he was a man of sound sense and of great good nature, and was born with a certain natural kind of fairness; hence his sketches of contemporaries are always worth consideration.

Few things are better in their way than this summary of the character of the Marquis of Wellesley: "He had," writes Lord Holland, "more genius than prudence, more spirit than principle, and manifestly despised his colleagues as much as they dreaded him. Unlike most English politicians, he was rather a statesman than a man of business, and more capable of doing extraordinary things well than of conducting ordinary transactions with safety or propriety." Even to George the Third he is fair; at any rate he sees, what few Whigs could bring themselves to acknowledge, that the King, by whom at every turn they were defeated, was a monarch of some virtues and even of some remarkable though limited talents.

"He was," to quote Lord Holland's language, "a man of principle, honest, and anxious in forming his rule of action, sagacious in the application and steady in the observance of it; but then his views were narrow and mischievous, his judgments warped, and his feelings illiberal. His distrust of mankind made him deem insincerity necessary and justifiable. He practised dissimulation, and in some instances simulation likewise, without scruple. If he had the heart of a courageous and the talents of a dexterous or shrewd man, he wanted the enlarged understanding which constitutes wisdom, as well as all elevation and refinement of sentiment which shed so much lustre on rank. He was, too, a stranger to every generous affection which renders a prince either amiable or benevolent. There was nothing great, nothing kind, nothing open, nothing graceful in his character or manners."

This summary of George's character makes, at any rate, intelligible the power which he in fact exerted. But even the authority which a King of England endowed with high courage, a strong will, inexhaustible industry, and, above all, unfathomable cunning could exercise for nearly half a century, is a far less sure proof of the existence of a state of things utterly unlike the social and political situation of to-day, than the power ascribed by men of ability to a worthless and cowardly voluptuary such as George IV. Lord Holland's Memoirs make it clear that, in the opinion of the Whigs, the Prince of Wales could, on becoming Regent, have transferred political power to the friends and the flatterers of his youth. He could, they certainly believed, have reversed the policy of the nation. Whether, indeed, the faith of the Whigs in the power of the Regent would have turned out better founded than their trust in his promises and expressions of good will, may admit of question. It is, however, certain that the Regent, with all his defects, might, if he had possessed the requisite ability and character, have exercised an authority perhaps as great as that which falls to-day to an ordinary prime minister. However this may be, the expectations formed by friends and foes of

the change which might be worked by the Prince of Wales becoming Regent, is proof, if proof were needed, that the Government of England lay, during the times in which Lord Holland was the chronicler, in the hands of a small body of wealthy men. It was in fact, though not in name, an oligarchy, among whom the King could, if he had chosen, or had possessed the requisite ability, have played a leading part.

If, however, the first answer to our inquiry is to be found in the change which the social and political conditions of English social life have undergone since 1821, the true answer must go rather deeper than any reply which depends wholly upon the visible changes either in the form or in the working of the British Constitution. The most satisfactory answer which can be given in a few words, is that the external revolution in the political life of England is merely the outward sign of a changed spirit. A man must be a bold optimist if he can confidently assert that the Englishmen of to-day are better or wiser men than were their grandfathers. The man must be a confirmed pessimist who can express a confident assurance that the changes wrought by a century of so-called progress have wholly or mainly worked evil. All that a sensible observer can venture to suggest is, that the England of 1820, whether better or worse, was in spirit no less than in institutions essentially different from the England of 1906. A whole host of ideas, good and bad, which make up the public opinion of to-day, were, to judge from Lord Holland's Memoirs, almost unknown to himself and his associates. Of theological disputes, except in so far as they touch directly upon politics—e. g., in the conflict over Catholic Emancipation—he writes little or nothing; for political economy or economical problems he and his friends cared, we may suspect, very little. No doubt in 1821 if you stepped outside the society which had its centre at Holland House, you might have heard many things which did not interest the Whigs whom Lord Holland entertained and Lady Holland bullied. For, in truth, the Whigs, whose hero had been Fox, were, with all their merits, behind rather than in advance of their time; their claim to our respect is, that, in a time of political reaction, they preserved their faith (though it was a rather narrow faith) in civil and religious liberty. But they certainly had little prescience of the then coming time. Lord Grey, though the accidental leader in the pacific revolution carried through by the Reform Act, was essentially an aristocrat; he also belonged to the body of Whigs who believed in protection, and believed in it partly because it maintained the influence of landowners. The Whigs of that day did not turn their minds vigorously toward economic problems. During the years, indeed, which elapsed between 1821 and 1832 the younger members of the Whig party who did not belong to the great Whig houses had become steeped in Benthamism, and aided in the production of that change of opinion which is typified by the transformation of Whigs into Liberals. But Lord Holland had, as a true adherent of Fox, very little sympathy with the middle-class Liberalism which became dominant after the Reform Act.

Nor, again, did the Whigs as a body share

that passion for national independence which, under the form of the nationality movement, colored European politics say from 1835 to 1870. It was from the Tories, not from the Whigs, that the Spaniards received sympathy in their resistance to the power of Napoleon. The desire to promote constitutional government abroad and to preserve popular government against the threats of the Holy Alliance, was exhibited by Canning; but Canning was the disciple not of Fox, but of Pitt. And Palmerston, who in latter years carried on the policy of Canning, was always in sentiment rather a Liberalized Tory than a Whig. At home no less than abroad the Whig Party displayed a singular incapacity for entering into national feeling. The whole attitude of Lord Holland towards Napoleon betrays a defective appreciation of all that was at stake in the life and death contest between England and the Emperor. But this is not all. The bitter resentment of the Whig leaders at the treachery of the Regent is fully justified if you regard the question from a wholly personal point of view. Anything baser or more treacherous than George's conduct is not easily imagined; nor can one honestly suppose that he was influenced by the belief that, if he betrayed his friends, he was loyal to the interests of the nation. On no single occasion, as far as history can be trusted, did he ever prefer any interest whatever to his own immediate comfort and pleasure. But if the charges brought against the Regent are looked at from a national rather than a personal point of view, George's character is not raised, for no one could suppose that he gave even a passing thought to the welfare of the nation; but the character of the Whigs is placed in the most unfavorable light. It was as clear as day that the one vital matter was that the nation should be united in its resistance to Napoleon. The best of the Whigs knew this, and insisted upon the necessity of every Englishman standing firm on behalf of the independence of England. It was also clear that English opinion supported the Tories, yet the Whigs were prepared to accept office from the Regent, and this though they were apparently divided in their views as to the war with France.

But the strangest matter of all is, that the Whigs who denounced and resented the influence of the Crown when that influence was in the hands of George III., were prepared to use the influence of the Crown when it had been transferred to the Regent for securing the rule of the Whig Party. This, at least, must seem to a candid reader to be the inference necessarily suggested by Lord Holland's Memoirs. It assuredly is completely in keeping with the conduct of Fox as leader of the Coalition, and later, during the debates on the Regency, when the Whigs seemed on the point of driving Pitt from power—that is, of overruling the will of the nation by obtaining the patronage of the Prince of Wales on his becoming Regent. Nor is it fair to ascribe conduct to them which most historians now blame wholly to party spirit; it was due, in great part at any rate, to two features which characterized the Whigs between 1760 and 1830—they were, speaking broadly, a party which in some respects advocated good causes; but they were never

able to raise their thoughts above party feeling and to recognize the supreme importance of bowing to the will of what Chatham calls the "Great Public." And though, under the influence of Fox, they sometimes adopted and played with democratic sentiment, they were never democrats; they believed, in reality, not in the sovereignty of the people, but in the sovereignty of Parliament.

MORE NOVELS.

Between Two Masters. By Gamaliel Bradford, Jr. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Diplomatic Adventure. By S. Weir Mitchell, M.D., LL.D. The Century Co.

The Lady of the Decoration. By Frances Little. The Century Co.

The world-old theme of the soul hesitating between God and Mammon will probably never be exhausted, certainly not abandoned, by novel writers. The modern purely philanthropic novel is now old, too, and begins to specialize itself. To teach the orphan boy to read, the orphan girl to sew, is superseded. There must be improved ways of living, and an equal number of ways of teaching those ways. 'Between Two Masters' is a record of conflict between the opposing forces of good and evil in the very concrete forms of "tainted money" on one side and modern Boston Settlement work on the other. Amos K. Phelps is rich and philanthropic, but his money has been made in the stock market and Trusts; and as "to be rich means simply making some one else poor," he stands for Ahriman. On the other side are the Episcopalian Church, the Settlement, the Tenement; in between stands, hesitant, Harvey Phelps. The millions are his if he will go into business with his uncle—with an easy-going athletic cousin to wife, if he is so inclined. A moderate competence and the approval of his conscience are all that Ormuzd promises, but in the end a saintly girl is thrown in, and virtue not only is, but has, its own reward. On the side of light are an ascetic rector and Diana the Settlement Saint, skilled in all latter-day sanitation and tenement accommodation; the powers of darkness behind the uncle are Phelps's golf-playing daughter, a comic journalist, and a frivolous girl. The love affairs of the group are remarkable for interchangeableness, and for the entire frankness with which the young folk plot and plan for one another's weddings, playing a kind of game of progressive hearts. The kernel of the matter, however, is not the story, but the arraignment of the top-heavy fortune and the exaltation of personal Christian consecration to good works.

A pleasant half-hour for the reader lies tucked away between the covers of 'A Diplomatic Adventure.' A Dumas-like set of persons is made freshly interesting by being assigned parts in a Franco-American tangle during the dark days of the civil war, when recognition of the Confederacy was the international menace. Dr. Weir Mitchell contrives, as only an accomplished writer could contrive, to bring into his little novel mystery, conspiracy, comicality, diplomacy and romance, with probability enough to keep unbelief at bay. French and Yankee swashbuckling are contrasted

picturesquely. The diplomatists are reasonable and human, and the fact that he who tells the story is neither the real hero nor his Boswell is refreshing. The valet in the pay of both the Empire and the American Secretary, with his sly, recurring "circumstances," is a crisply modelled little figure of fun. And the hiding-place devised for the valuable papers is far too good a one to be here disclosed.

"The Lady of the Decoration" gives very pretty pictures of Japanese life, landscape, babies and mothers, and very comical ones of the Kentucky woman implanting in Asiatic minds the seed of American knowledge, under missionary auspices. The babies were taught to laugh and romp; the class in physical culture studied "skipping," and initiated the mothers in that tonic exercise. The young teachers were instructed in psychology—effectively, we may be sure, for one of them handed in this definition: "Reflex action is of a activity nervous. It is sometimes the don't understand of what it is doing, and stops many messages to the brain, and sends the motion to the legs." The young Kentuckian reflects in her narrative the flowery charm always to be expected of Japan, and is able even to enhance it by her special experiences, for they include many little every-day contacts acquired in the routine life which she leads as a teacher in winter, with summer vacation journeys into holiday places. With these peaceful affairs is contrasted a glimpse of the Japanese-Russian war, the horrible sights of the hospital, the gay departures of the soldiers, the harrowing bravery of the women. "I hope," writes the American, "I shall never get to the point of believing that it's right for strong, useful men to be killed or crippled for life in order to settle a controversy."

The book is in the form of letters, wherein pluck strives with homesickness for the mastery, and humor—a truly American humor—with a sentiment made rather over-prominent by the first person singular. It is to be hoped that the little Japanese did not copy their teacher's wills and shalls, unless, indeed, they reversed them. The missionary accessories tempt her mirthfulness into an occasional lapse from taste; and it may be added that though the letter-writing form makes colloquialism more than allowable, the slang should be tempered with mercy for proportion's sake, since it reaches the reader in cold print. Mr. Henry James has said that Mrs. Kemble "was a constant proof that the richest colloquial humor is not dependent for its success upon slang, least of all (as this is a matter in which distance gilds) upon that of the hour. I won't say," he adds, "that her lips were not occasionally crossed gracefully enough by that of 1840." It may be that in 1980 Miss Little's slang may appear as graceful and gilded as a Japanese fan.

The Cathedral Builders in England. By Edward S. Prior, M.A., F. S. A. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905. Pp. 112.

This is one of the Portfolio Monographs, and although very many of them are of great importance, admirable books to read and to keep within reach of the hand, it may be thought to overtop them all.

Mr. Prior is the author of a 'History of Gothic Art in England,' which appeared in 1900 and was duly reviewed in these columns. Since that date Mr. Prior has thought much upon the theme, and what he has to say now is most impressive. The present is not to be regarded as in any sense an abridgment of his former work; yet, treating an important subject from one point of view, it may be thought to give to many readers that which the more exhaustive work will not give. The general title includes much, for, in Mr. Prior's presentation, the mediæval building from the beginning of the pointed style in England until the sixteenth century was very largely in the hands of the same artists who were in charge of the cathedrals.

Of the nine chapters, each stands for a period of time. The first period, 1066 to 1150, deals with the Saint Albans crossing (that is to say, the important open space where the transept crosses the nave and choir), with the crypt and transept of Winchester, the transept and nave of Ely, and so on through eleven churches, all of cathedral rank. There is also the note, given in the place where it is most needed, that in two of the churches in question where "choir, transept, and nave" are studied, the "crossing" itself is a nineteenth-century rebuilding. In this way the reader is told exactly what is under examination—the still unmarred ancient structure in this part and in that of any given church. Thus at the very outset is struck the keynote upon which the whole symphony is to be composed. To draw the sharpest possible line of division between rebuilt, reconstructed, "restored" nineteenth-century copies and the originals, no matter how close the imitation may seem to the ignorant and the careless, and to find out by study of the authentically ancient parts, larger and smaller, what the old artist was after—that is Mr. Prior's worthy and much-loved task. He makes it clear at the beginning that he does not look on the architectural mass alone—the proportions, the majesty, the dignity, the general style—as the characteristic works of the eleventh-century and twelfth-century artist. The detail—the sculpture and the painting and the glass—requires all that the keenest observer and the most fearless critic can express by way of minute characterization.

The fourth chapter has to do with the "Summit of Gothic Art," 1250 to 1290, and names ten parts of churches, such as the choir of Old St. Paul's, the nave of Lichfield, and the chapter-houses of Wells, Southwells, and York. Herein lies the most serious part of the author's attempt to show that the European uniformity of Gothic architecture in those later days may have been largely the result of the French evolution of the style, while the battle begun in the earlier chapters against the general assumption that Gothic architecture is a French art is still continued. We do not much admire that patriotism which makes a writer contend for the origin, in his own little political division of Europe, of some great movement in art or literature; but in the case of Mr. Prior and his patriotism there is a vast knowledge of details—details of building and of ornamentation, discoveries of date and of individual influences, minute comparisons of sculpture with sculpture, arcade with arcade, all over

England and Wales. So many foolish theories are here set upon and routed that the chief enemy is left unmentioned until another chapter has been begun. Much is made of the fact that the architecture of Angers and of Anjou generally is about the last which can be thought to have influenced English twelfth-century work; but if any assertion to the contrary was ever made, it must have been by historians of dynasties and foreign wars, not of architecture. One can see the "closet historian" and his suggestion of reasons why Gothic must have come to England from the Continent: "Why, don't you see? Three Angevin kings in a row, Henry II. and his two sons, and just at that period, too, 1154-1216. Of course, it was in this way that the Gothic was introduced." That, however, is not the assertion of the more serious students of the art.

The question as to where the ribbed vault and the vaulting-shaft first came in as a supersession of the Romanesque ways of building, has been answered by non-English writers with the statement that the neighborhood of Paris, the old royal domain of France, saw the beginnings of the new art. One exceptional building is in Normandy and puzzles everybody, but in general a circle drawn with a radius of forty-five miles, with the Cathedral of Paris as its centre, would contain the buildings in which the Gothic vaulting perfected itself; and our quarrel with Mr. Prior is that he seems reluctant to accept the peculiar vaulted structure with constructional ribs and flying buttresses as the one test of what is Gothic. The earnest appeals of the Introduction, the appeal to the sense of mystery, to the love of irregularity, to the love of originality, to the love of color, are to be accepted as a truthful rendering in words of what Gothic architecture says to us. The mistake seems to lie in the assumption that the color design, the carving, the moulding, the irregularities, the originality and dash, are essentially Gothic. They are not Gothic, at least not in a peculiar sense; they are the characteristics of any living art, of an art in its spring-time. And if the copies of thirteenth-century Gothic are wretched things, as we are told on pages 15, 18, and elsewhere, it is not an unexplained mystery that they should be so. Given a rebuilt nave, we hate it because it replaces a lost work of the thirteenth century; because we do not feel sure that this was what the mediæval artist intended; because it is very hard and exact, and we believe that the old work would have been less precise; because it has no accidents or failures; because it shows no signs of old, half-effaced painting; because, finally, it disagrees, in its accuracy, with the less methodical old work with which it is associated. It is true that some of our dissatisfaction with new Gothic buildings, when of the highest type, is unfounded. The reasons for our rejection of these are not the lack of the evidences of growth, of the visible "procession of mighty forces" (p. 18), but the mixture of real and imagined inferiority which we find in the new-built piece of work. And if it is found that a good modern design such as Truro Cathedral is still disregarded, or is looked at with disfavor, that is because the modern world is wholly

out of touch with Gothic architecture. Mr. Prior asks (p. 107) why Truro was not built of the material found near at hand, the granite of the hills, and finds a partial answer in the fact that "Pearson, a nineteenth-century architect, . . . having learnt his Lincoln Cathedral, . . . could only use a stone in which the Lincoln detail could be worked." He was "obliged to repeat himself and give his clients what they had been trained to expect." Precisely! And it is because the modern architect cannot build freely, because he is an archaeologist in the first place, because he cannot go to a granite country and make a granite Gothic, even as the Breton architects did in the fourteenth century. It is not because Truro Cathedral is like Lincoln that it is not great architecture; it is not even because it is built of foreign stone that it is not great architecture. It is very good and very freshly imagined work; and if it is not still better than that and really a great design, that is because one cannot make a great design all by himself. He must have all the master builders of his time (whatever you call those master builders) working in harmony for a common result. It is only under these conditions that great designs are possible.

Die Ausgrabungen auf dem Forum Romanum, 1902-1904. Von Christian Hülsen. (Römische Mittheilungen xx. 1.). Rome: Löschner. 1905.

One of the best features of the journal of the German Archaeological Institute at Rome used to be the publication from time to time of Dr. Hülsen's reviews of recent work on the topography of ancient Rome. The cessation of this series was a cause of earnest regret to many readers of the *Mittheilungen* on this side of the Atlantic, as in Europe. Three years ago the series was resumed in a somewhat more limited form, being confined in subject to recent discoveries in the Forum; but Hülsen's article filled an entire number of the journal, and was later issued in a separate form. The present article is of similar extent, and is illustrated by four plates and fifty-two cuts in the text, some of them reproducing early views and drawings, otherwise practically inaccessible. Between the publication of these two accounts Hülsen has also issued an invaluable little hand-book on the ancient remains in the Forum, which has been mentioned in these columns and has just appeared in a second edition. It is shortly to be published in an English translation by Prof. Jesse B. Carter of Princeton University and the American School in Rome.

The wide interest that the recent extensive excavations in the Forum—more far-reaching, more scientifically carried out, and more richly productive in results for history than any earlier work in the same region—have awakened among intelligent travellers, makes a brief summary of Hülsen's judgment on a few of the especially controverted matters not without interest for other than special students of the subject.

There has been a unanimous wail from students at a distance from Rome that the official journal of all excavations carried on by the Italian Government, the

Notizie degli Scavi, is so preternaturally slow in publishing full and authentic accounts of the discoveries in the Forum. It may be that Commissioner Boni is too busy with digging to study and write. But prompt publication is as much the duty of the archaeologist as active and careful digging, and such work as that in the Forum ought not to be treated as a purely Italian family affair, in which outsiders need not interfere. Prompt and authentic news of the work we need and have a right to request with some degree of insistence; rhetorical and other more scientific discussion can await the excavator's greater leisure. It is some comfort to notice that Hülsen shares in the widespread criticism of the pen's delay in this matter, and some satisfaction that, since his remarks were printed, a fourth report on the prehistoric cemetery has actually appeared in the *Notizie*.

The identification of the piece of hewn native tufa behind the Umbilicus Romæ with the Ara Volcani is, according to Hülsen, not proven, while Lanciani's statement that the altar was discovered in 1548 is shown to be an error. The Græco-stadium, which Hülsen himself, like others, formerly assumed to be identical with the Græcostasis, is now ascribed to a situation south of the Basilica Julia, on the ground actually occupied by the hospital and church of S. Maria della Consolazione. The author also takes serious issue with Richter upon questions connected with the rostra, as set forth by the latter in his programme of 1903, especially on the identification of the Hemicycle with the rostra of Cæsar, and the belief that the rectangular structure is of later origin, clinging to his own earlier belief that the steps behind the Hemicycle served as the original approach to the contemporaneous (rectangular) rostra. Yet he concedes that further excavation is necessary to settle certain difficult points. The church of SS. Sergius and Bacchus is shown, by the help of two previously unpublished drawings, to have stood further to the west than has generally been supposed; its apse near the three standing columns of the Temple of Vespasian, its nave extending to the portico of the Temple of Concord. The modern street now covers the site. Hülsen repeats, with reasons, his belief that the archaic *cippus* under the "black stone" was mutilated and covered at the time of the Julian-Augustan changes in the Forum and Comitium, and argues at some length his points of disagreement with Petersen, in his 'Comitium, Rostra, Grab des Romulus,' previously noticed in these columns, and with Studniczka, in the Yearbook of the Austrian Institute. He doubts decidedly the accuracy of the designation *æquus Tremuli*, assigned to the recently unearthed foundation near the Heroön of Cæsar, and suggests, though acknowledging difficulties, that to this structure may belong both the Augustus inscription (CIL. 6. 3747), and the Lucius inscription.

He repeats, with additional argument, his criticism of Boni's declaration that the *cuniculi* of the Forum were constructed for use in games given in that place, and disagrees with Boni further in his declaration that the column hitherto called that of Phocas is really a *columna Diocletiani*, though he is inclined to agree with Boni

regarding the identification of the *æquus Domitiani*. But he is in doubt concerning the proper interpretation of the archaic, or archaistic, vases found in the base of the last-named monument.

A full list is given of the paintings in the church of S. Maria Antiqua, and of the character and contents of the graves thus far opened in the ancient necropolis. Hülsen is utterly unconvinced by the arguments of Boni and Vaglieri that the Arch of Titus originally stood further to the north, and was removed to its present site to make room for Hadrian's temple of Venus and Rome, pointing out that the one strong argument in favor of that view is totally upset by the fact that the concrete foundations of the Arch of Augustus, which certainly was never moved, were in similar manner planted on an earlier street pavement.

The entire article, so richly filled with information, is characterized by the author's wide knowledge and sanity of judgment, and by his well-known steady determination to declare nothing certain which can be proved only by such lively work of the imagination as distinguishes some of the otherwise excellent Italian archaeologists, and makes distant scholars smile and doubt.

Common-Sense Gardens: How to Plan and Plant Them. By Cornelius V. V. Sewell. New York: The Grafton Press. 1906.

The title well describes this book, if seemingly a little arrogantly since the shelves are now full of books upon gardens and gardening; and now comes one which professes to deal with the whole subject from a common-sense point of view. What is the matter with the rest of the shelf? The author presents to the owners of small estates and even much more humble holdings useful suggestions as to making the best outlay of time and money in beautifying the home grounds *with or without* the help of the landscape architect. Nearly all the other works on this topic assume that the householder is to do all his own planning with little aid outside of the book in hand. Now making a garden is very much like buying a horse. If you use your own knowledge acquired solely from reading about the desirable points of the ideal beast you want, you are in a fair way to acquire a large amount of experience with great rapidity and mortification. A little assistance at the outset goes a long way towards success in either of these enterprises. But, nevertheless, one must be on his guard against following all advice too closely. The author says: "Architects, garden and otherwise, have a way of talking their clients into doing or allowing them to do many things that the clients do not desire. It is part of their profession, and the more languages they can use, the more successful they are." But, on the other hand, "consult a garden architect of good reputation, one whose work you have seen and know to approach more or less to your ideal; but do not let him do more than offer a few suggestions at a time concerning the points about which you are most in doubt. . . . The architect will be useful in suggesting the shape of the garden and the best materials to use for the enclosure, and he may be better able than you to see the

possibilities of the natural features of the land, because his eye is trained to such work and is ever on the alert." That is common sense. And now, "Do not follow his suggestions about planting, however, but do that, the first year at least, yourself." And that, too, is common sense. There is very sound counsel, also, in the direction to beginners to patronize (1) nurserymen near one's home, for these will willingly advise you and perhaps make good your occasional losses of plants; and (2) if you have to buy your plants from a distance, try to get them from some place farther north than your place, since these will probably prove more hardy.

There are some interesting words to be met with, here and there, throughout the book, for instance, "cuppy," as applied to clayey soil in which shell-like horizontal cavities form, collecting too freely water that stays too long. And there are many pleasing turns of thought, rather out of the conventional line. Thus, an account of moving large lilac-bushes is well presented, closing with, "I have moved lilacs when in flower, and they have gone on blooming just as if they were used to a carriage drive every day."

The instructive volume is illustrated by good reproductions of photographs, and decorated in excellent taste at the beginnings of the chapters. It is almost too well printed upon too fine a paper for a Garden Handbook, but our modern *éditions de luxe* of Country Life have accustomed us all to the very best. Therefore it is perhaps well that this work, with its good common sense, should be issued in a highly attractive form, that it may be more likely to fall into the hands of those who need it most. Among those who would do well to heed its precepts are the thoughtless ones who are guilty of erecting gas-pipe fences, and with this citation of good counsel, we commend the book to all:

"The most ungainly fence that has ever been devised is made by running lengths of gas-pipe through upright wooden posts, and coupling them together. From an

æsthetic point of view, such a fence has not one redeeming feature; its ugliness stands out uncompromisingly and detracts from whatever beauty the house and grounds may possess. It is strong and easy to construct, and is quite cheap, considering its substance, and it has a smug appearance that many people cannot resist. They excuse the use of it, by saying that they intend to cover it quickly with vines. They may cover it, but they cannot hide it; the most luxurious [*sic*] tropical growth would be unable to veil its protruding personality. You would know it was a gas-pipe fence if it was boarded up and vines trained over the boards, and you would shudder when you passed it and instinctively anathematize the plumber who invented it. If men are known by their works, you would recognize a man who built such a fence around his yard or garden as one who, although he might be rich, yet was penurious—perhaps kind to his wife and children, but possessing no real affection; and you would pity his family. You would place him as a tradesman who had risen from the ranks, but who certainly deserved to be degraded again, and sum up by adding that, whatever he was, he possessed no soul; for souls and gas-pipe fencing are farther apart than earth and heaven."

Corporations: A Study of the Origin and Development of Great Business Combinations and of their Relation to the Authority of the State. By John P. Davis. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905.

These volumes, as appears from the author's preface, were intended to serve as an introduction to a volume on the subject of modern corporations. Although superficially complete in themselves, they can hardly be regarded as more than a very elaborate foundation for a work which Mr. Davis's unfortunate death cut short. They are inconclusive, and the reader can only surmise what conclusion the author would have reached. They are full of learning and research on the nature and history of corporations of all kinds—guilds, municipalities, ecclesiastical corporations, joint-stock companies, colonial companies, and eleemosynary corporations; but in the end we are left rather in the dark as to the

author's drift. The concluding sentence of the book consists in the epigrammatic statement that "citizenship" has been "largely metamorphosed into membership in corporations, and patriotism into fidelity to them," while elsewhere (vol. i., p. 31) he lays it down that a "private corporation" is a contradiction in terms, and "has no place in a sound organization of society." He makes war, as others have done, upon our old fiction—surely a convenient one still—that a corporation is an "artificial person." He calls attention to the "virtual exclusion" of the "small stockholder" from participation in the management, though he seems to fail to see that this is highly democratic—the analogue of the virtual exclusion of the average voter from "the ring" which manages his party and his government. He insists that trade unions show a tendency to approach the status of "true corporations," but does not perceive that they always endeavor to keep themselves as far as possible from the responsibility in law which marks a true corporation.

Altogether, we must regard this book as materials collected with a view to the production of a definite theory, rather than any coherent statement of such a theory.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aubin, Eugène. Morocco of To-day. Dutton. \$2 net.
Baumgarten, Otto. Carlyle and Goethe. Lemcke & Buechner.
Crabbe's Poems. Edited by Adolphus W. Ward. Vol. II. Macmillan Co.
Doughty, Charles M. The Dawn in Britain. 2 vols. Dutton. \$3 net.
Everyman's Library. Edited by Ernest Rhys. 50 vols. Dutton. 50 cents per volume.
Farquhar, Edward. The Youth of Messiah. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Graves, Henry C. Lectures on Homilies. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Headley, John W. Confederate Operations in Canada and New York. Neale Publishing Co. \$2.
Joachim, Harold H. The Nature of Truth. Henry Frowde.
Lamprecht, Karl. Americana. Lemcke & Buechner.
Long, John Luther. The Way of the Gods. Macmillan Co. \$3.50.
Munton, E. Fishing for Pleasure and Catching It. Imported by Scribners. \$1.25 net.
Seidel's Aus Goldenen Tagen. Edited by Wilhelm Bornhardt. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 36 cents.

RACIAL DESCENT IN ANIMALS

By THOMAS H. MONTGOMERY, Jr., of the University of Texas. \$2.50 net; by mail \$2.70.

A critical examination of the methods of determining racial descent, and an examination of the comparative values of the phenomena to be interpreted.



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THE EVASION

By EUGENIA BROOKS PROTHINGHAM

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